The Nation.

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The Week.

The worst blow administered to the cause of reform in the Federal civil service since the enactment of the law of 1883 was dealt by President McKinley on Monday, when he issued the long-talked-of amendments to the civil-service rules. That some places which might wisely have remained outside the classified service were brought under the operation of the rules by the sweeping order issued by Mr. Cleveland in 1896, has been frankly admitted by the Civil-Service Commissioners and other candid students of the subject. There would have been no ground for criticism if Mr. McKinley, after careful canvassing of all the questions involved with the Commissioners, had withdrawn the comparatively small number of such positions from the scope of the competitive system. But he has gone very much further than this. He has released from the operation of the rules more than 4,000 places, and, in far the greater proportion of cases, no defence whatever is possible. Especially reprehensible is the amendment of rule ten, so that transfers may be made without any limitation, and a harness-maker be given a position as physician, or a laborer the salary of a high-grade clerk. The only restriction is the requirement that a man shall pass a non-competitive examination, which will be no obstacle to the change. Thus, instead of only 4,000 places being exempted, the way is opened for putting several times as many outside the operation of the rules.

The most shameful feature of this order is the fact that Mr. McKinley issued it without any conference whatever with the Civil-Service Commissioners. "In June last," said President Proctor on Monday, "the Civil-Service Commission recommended to President McKinley that certain exceptions be made to the classified service and certain amendments to the rules. Since that recommendation was made, the Commission have not been called into consultation, and the Executive order made to-day was without previous reference to the Commission." President McKinley has violated the most solemn pledges given by his party and himself. The platform upon which he was elected declared that "the civil-service law was placed on the statute-book by the Republican party, which has always sustained it, and we renew our repeated declarations that it shall be thoroughly and honestly enforced and extended wherever practicable." His own letter of acceptance quoted this engagement, declared that it "will be faithfully observed," and announced that "the Republican party will take no backward step upon this question. It will seek to improve, but never degrade the public service." The whole performance is disheartening. At the very time that we are taking in "new possessions," and attempting to carry the blessings of civilization to "inferior races" abroad, we remove safeguards from an inferior race at home, we turn over the government of Alaska entirely to the spoilsmen, and we make the proclamation of the Philippine Commission, which "guarantees an honest and effective civil service," a laughing-stock.

The determination of a committee of importers to bring suit against the Treasury Department, in order to test the legality of the removal of Mr. Shurtleff from the office of General Appraiser, is a patriotic and most commendable proceeding. It is precisely the same in principle as the proceedings which have been carried on successively in our city courts against the illegal efforts of Tammany heads of municipal departments to get possession of places which are under civil-service-law control. President McKinley's course in regard to Mr. Shurtleff is not one whit better in morals than that of the Tammany Commissioners of Accounts, or that of the Tammany Fire Commissioner, Scannell, in relation to their objectionable subordinates. He removed Mr. Shurtleff without cause, without giving a reason even, in the same way that these Tammany officials removed employees. He wanted the "place" for Platt to fill; they wanted the "places" for Croker to fill. The courts have condemned them for their conduct and have ordered the reinstatement of the removed employees. It remains to be seen whether the President's course has any more legal justification than that of the Tammany officials, but it certainly has no more moral justification. The only difference between the two is that the President pretends to be a friend of civil-service reform, and consequently an upholder of good government; whereas no Tammany man ever pretends anything of the kind. Mr. Shurtleff was put out because he insisted upon doing his duty without regard to the wishes of Platt, and because, in the performance of his duty, he ran counter to the doings of Appraiser Wakeman. If this fact can be established in court, thus showing the true nature of the President's conduct in the matter, an object-lesson of much value will be afforded to the country.

The report of the Commission of Special Treasury Agents on the conduct of Appraiser Wakeman towards the importers of Swiss embroideries convicts him on all the charges brought against him. The report says that he acted honestly. It was never charged that he had acted dishonestly, but merely that he had acted oppressively, illegally, and wantonly, causing heavy losses to merchants, without any justifiable excuse. It was charged that he had taken as a basis of the appraisement of embroideries the selling price of such goods in the United States, whereas the law requires him to take either the selling price abroad or the cost of production abroad. On this count he was found guilty. He was charged with unjust discrimination, and he was found guilty on that count also. He was charged with unreasonable delay in coming to a decision upon certain invoices, and was found guilty upon that point also. It was proved that the invoices of one importer had been exposed to another importer by an assistant appraiser, and that business secrets had been revealed, in violation of the rules of the department. In short, the Appraiser's office had been perverted to an instrument of tyranny and oppression against citizens who are engaged in a lawful calling, and who contribute largely to the support of the government. In any other civilized country such a report would be followed by the removal from office of the person who had committed the offences. But since Wakeman represents the Protective Tariff League, which holds the act of importing to be little short of criminal, even when conforming strictly to law, he will probably be "vindicated" by retention in office, if not promoted to a higher position.

Every now and then the censorship at Manila lifts the veil a little and lets us see the disagreeable facts. Just when all seemed fairest, and the fraudulent peace jubilee at Washington was but well over, came the dispatch saying that "a much larger army" was needed; that the Filipinos were fighting, in their way, with as much spirit as ever, in spite of their heavy losses, and in spite of the fact that a majority of their wounded die through lack of medical care. All this is but confirmatory of what those best informed about the situation have told us from the first. Gen. Lawton has said that it would take 100,000 men to conquer the islands. We happen to know that officers of the *Raleigh* declared in this city that 150,000 soldiers would be needed to subjugate and hold the Philippines. But we can do it! Of course we can—we can make fools of ourselves if we want to. But what a delightful preparation for Mr. McKinley's campaign in Ohio this fall it would be for him to be obliged to call out 35,000 volunteers to fill more Filipino graves. In

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no other way, however, can the President get his "much larger army." Every regiment of regulars which can be spared from this country and Cuba is now en route or under orders for the Philippines. Just one other alternative is open to the President. Let him promise to treat the Filipinos as we have promised to treat the Cubans, and instead of having to double his army he could at once reduce it one-half. He professes to be anxious for Congressional guidance. Let him recall that the Bacon resolution, guaranteeing the Filipinos parity of treatment with the Cubans, was defeated in the Senate only by the casting vote of the Vice-President. There is the guidance, not only of Congress, but of common sense. Mr. McKinley has been gradually sliding down from the conqueror's throne which he mounted last December. He has grown more conciliatory as he has grown more anxious. Now let him get off of that throne altogether, stand on his feet like a man and a brother, tell the natives that they may have their independence as soon as they show they can maintain it, and offer to help them to maintain it.

Even the Washington Mark Tapleys no longer find the Philippine situation so extremely jolly. Newspaper correspondents in the confidence of the Administration admit that the President is not so cock-sure of speedy peace as he was a few days ago. He is hopeful that Aguinaldo's delegates will soon come back for more banquets and palavering, but it begins to look now as if those gentlemen meant to stick to the jungle. But Mr. McKinley is in no slight jungle of his own. He wants results, but is unwilling to use the necessary means. "Push things," he orders Gen. Otis, but Otis replies, "Give me troops enough and I will." This brings the President squarely up to the need of calling for volunteers, but he tells his friends that he is most averse to issuing such a call. In the first place, there is the "pang" involved of ordering more graves to be decorated; then there is the cost; finally, there are "political reasons." Yet, more troops there must be *if more fighting there* must be. Every military authority asserts that. There is reason to think that Otis let the statement that a much larger army is urgently needed pass the censor at Manila, in order to force the President to act one way or another.

Senator Davis of Minnesota has taken an early stand in favor of perpetual retention of the Philippines. In a speech at St. Paul week before last, he said that he considered it the duty of the United States towards the Philippine archipelago "to retain sovereignty over there permanently and not provisionally." This sentiment he qualified by saying: "I would give to the Philippines, just as I would any other people, as complete autonomy as, from time to time, they show themselves capable of exercising." This plan leaves no place or room for the Filipinos to become American citizens. It offers them no opportunity for becoming a part of the American republic, or for forming a republic of their own. However much they may rise in the social scale under our guidance, they are to be held permanently and not provisionally. That Mr. Davis's proposal does not contemplate their escape from our control at any future time is plain from the context, in which he says that we must have our share in the commerce of China, and that "the nation which hopes to be a factor in China has no right to relinquish possession of the Philippines." That is, we must hold them because there is money to be made by doing so. We have expected to see the pretences which have hitherto masked our policy in the Philippines dropped after the next election, but hardly before. The chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations is to be commended for his frankness. It leaves no room for skulking or for half measures. We apprehend that it leaves no room for the revered McKinley. Any policy which is clear-cut and decisive will have terrors for him till after the next election. What he wants to play continuously is the waiting game. He ought not to be allowed to play it longer. He ought to be compelled to show his hand, and we are glad that Senator Davis means to force his hand. The greatest political need of the day is a sharp division between Imperialism and its opposite. The greatest danger is the undefined policy and the fatalistic tendency of the Republican party, coupled with the silverism and the Bryanism of the Democratic party. Perhaps Senator Davis's speech may help to bring both parties to their bearings on the main question of the day, and save us from going into the next campaign on dead issues.

Judge Gray, in his reluctant defence of the Philippine policy in Philadelphia last Thursday, spoke contemptuously of the political aspirations of the Filipinos, and sneered at the idea of applying the doctrine of the consent of the governed in their case. Government, he said, is a practical affair, and "not a thing of phrases." No mistake could be greater. A phrase which embodies the dearest traditions and sentiments of a nation is mightier than laws or constitutions. Is Judge Gray, is President McKinley, willing to turn over all the watchwords of liberty to Mr. Bryan? Shall he, or some other agitator with a great popular following, be permitted to traverse the country next year, declaring that the Administration has forsaken the American principle of government, and that the rough riding down of the Filipinos is only the preliminary to the shooting down of American laboring men? The Filipino delegate who said in Manila, on the day of Judge Gray's deliverance, that McKinley's offers were all very fine, but were, after all, in the teeth of all boasted American doctrine, used an argument which it is easy to sneer at in his mouth, but which, heard on the stump in every American State next year, and made an instrument in the hands of political passion and political ambition, is capable of shaking this nation, and of leaving the bewildered McKinley at the bottom of a gorgeous wreck.

Senator Platt praises Mr. McKinley's "wonderful foresight," and gives it as one of the reasons why he is "the only possible Republican candidate for the Presidency in 1900." We commend the saying to the prominent New York merchants who recently visited the White House to protest against a Platt appointee as General Appraiser. The President said he was very anxious to consult their wishes, but, of course, "foresight" would not allow him to do so. He clearly foresaw that Mr. Platt would have the seventy-two delegates from New York in the hollow of his hand, and what were seventy-two, or seventy-two hundred, merchants in comparison? So the merchants got the fine words and Platt got the appointment. His proclaiming that McKinley is certain to be renominated and reëlected is only common gratitude for favors received, into which an extra amount of fervor is thrown as a reminder that he also expects favors to come. A Platt Speaker of the House and a lot more of Platt postmasters and appraisers would be uncommonly handy to the boss just now when he is getting such ugly blows at Albany and in New York. President McKinley's wonderful foresight will teach him, no doubt, that this Platt interview will have to be paid for with more patronage. Disraeli said of Peel that his whole political life had been "one vast appropriation clause"; but that is a feeble phrase for describing the way in which Platt appropriates every office in sight. The more evident it is to him that McKinley is the only possible candidate, the more clear he must make it to his machine, by his control of Federal patronage, that he is the only possible boss.

Mr. Bryan is quoted, in an interview at St. Louis on Thursday, as saying that silver must be kept in the forefront of the battle next year, yet in his public speech he distinctly put it in the background. He gave the first place to the anti-Trust doctrine, and he brought in the silver question as one variation of the Trust, which he designated the "Money Trust." What he said on this branch of the subject was very meagre and very

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unsubstantial. It shows plainly that silver will not be the paramount issue of the next campaign. The only comment needful to be made upon Mr. Bryan's definition of the "standard money Trust," which he declares to be the parent Trust, is to point out that, in his estimation, "it is in the hands of foreigners." If that is true, how are we going to hit it? We can reach all other Trusts with one kind of club or another, because they are subject to the jurisdiction of our courts and legislatures. But we cannot reach a Trust that is in the hands of foreigners except by conquering the foreign countries where the "parent Trust" has its domicile and lurking-place. The State of Texas is now attacking Trusts by prohibiting the sale of goods manufactured or produced by Trusts; but nobody, not even Mr. Bryan, would think of prohibiting the introduction of money into this country from abroad, however hateful may be the Trust which controls it.

Gov. Pingree of Michigan is not only the author of sensations himself, but the cause of sensations on the part of others. Last week he took action which led to the refusal by the legislative department of the Government to receive a message from the Executive. There had been an investigation by a committee of the House into the expenditure of the State's war funds, and majority and minority reports were submitted from the committee a few days ago. Gov. Pingree was disgusted with the findings of the minority, and sent a special message to the House to express his feelings. After the clerk had finished reading it, the Speaker ruled the message out of order, and directed that it be returned to the Governor. He pointed out that the Constitution provides that the Governor "shall give to the Legislature information by message of the condition of the State, and recommend such measures to them as he shall deem expedient," but declared that this message did not pretend to set forth the condition of the State, or to make any recommendation, and consequently maintained that the document had no proper standing, and ought not to be received. "Parliamentary authorities" are quoted as supporting the Speaker's contention.

The new Franchise-Tax bill has passed the New York Legislature and will become law on the 1st of October next. The amendments made since its introduction are few and slight. One of these exempts from taxation the property of municipal corporations. As a municipal corporation is a minor part of the State government, it is not to be supposed that the franchise tax would have been levied upon such corporations in any event, but it is as well that the exemption should be made in express terms. Another amendment prescribes a new form of oath to be taken by local assessors, making them swear more solemnly than before that they have assessed the real estate in their respective districts "at the full value thereof, according to our best judgment and belief." The intent of this probably is to jog the consciences of the assessors, and intimate to them that the practice of assessing real estate at 50 or 60 per cent. of its value must now come to an end. This will be necessary unless grave injustice is to be done to the corporations subject to the franchise tax. Since the franchises are now to be taxed as real estate, and the valuation of them is to be put as nearly as possible at their actual value, all other real estate should be assessed at its actual value. The amount of tax to be paid by the owner will be no greater by reason of the raising of the valuation. It ought to be less by reason of the new law and of the swelling of the general list.

By a process of natural selection, Prof. Arthur T. Hadley has come to the top of the candidates to the succession of Yale's presidency. His age and health hold out every promise that, at forty-three, he may look forward to an administration of a quarter of a century. He has had twenty years' experience as tutor, lecturer, and professor. He has won recognition, both in this country and abroad, in his specialty of political economy; but he has an inherited breadth of knowledge and of view consonant with the whole range of learning in a great modern university. He combines with the scholar's tastes much of the equipment for a successful man of affairs. He supplements his other qualifications with that most valuable of all, the ability to interest young men in serious work. Finally, he understands that the highest obligation laid upon the educated man is to serve the republic, and that the best tribute which can be paid to an educational institution is the fact that its graduates are good citizens. Yale University is to be congratulated upon what we believe to have been the best possible solution of a grave problem.

The New England Free-Trade League some time ago offered prizes of $100 and $50 each to the competition of students in our educational institutions, for essays on the subject, "If all foreign products should be admitted into this country free of duty, what proportion of persons would suffer direct injury?" When announcement of the awards was made the other day, it came out that a first prize and a second prize had gone to students in the University of Pennsylvania. This news has caused a shock in Philadelphia, and the press of the city is beginning to protest. The *Inquirer*, the chief supporter of Quay, "doubts the economic and moral honesty of the offer of such a prize," and it also "doubts whether university authorities should permit the name of their institution to be brought in in this way for the booming of a dead issue, which should never have been a political issue, and never would have been, since the death of slavery, but for the importunities of the importers." It excuses the offending young men, on the ground that "the student will hardly stop to consider that this particular prize is in the nature of a business bribe, and that the offer has a shady appearance," but it holds that "there is evidently a point where the college authorities should step in to say whether such an offer can properly be considered." The truth is, that altogether too much freedom of thought has been allowed students in the past, and it is time to put on the screws. The next thing we know, somebody will be offering them prizes for esays "On the Importance of Maintaining the Principles of the Republic," and getting them to write stuff which Charles Emory Smith will have to keep out of the mails because of its "incendiary" nature.

Reluctance, amounting to dread lest it get another "case" on its hands, is what most strikes one in the Presbyterian General Assembly's treatment of Prof. McGiffert, Prof. Briggs's colleague. The whole procedure has been most hesitant and gingerly. Last year the Assembly besought Prof. McGiffert either to revise his theological opinions or withdraw from the church. The Professor, in a very manly letter to the Assembly, intimated that its method was entirely irregular (as it certainly was), but said that his brethren must have gravely misunderstood his views, and that he had no intention of withdrawing from a church in which he was born and bred and to the interests of which he is devoted. Of course, the only way in which a man's theology can be decided to be heretical is by a formal trial. Opinions of other clergymen, however dogmatically proclaimed, are only their opinions and have not the slightest effect in ecclesiastical law. This seems to have dawned on the Assembly, which last week ordered the New York Presbytery to take up Prof. McGiffert's case. But many voices are saying that there will be no heresy trial. Prof. McGiffert, they aver, is too much of a gentleman to stay where he is not wanted. He will peaceably withdraw. But that depends. He maintains that his views are consistent with the Presbyterian standards. Why, then, should he withdraw? Why is he not wanted? He may also feel it a duty to make a test of the question whether there is room in the church for men of progressive liberality and scholarship like his own. Altogether, therefore, we think that the New York Presbytery will either have a heresy trial on its hands, or else will have to go on tolerating Prof. McGiffert and other suspected heretics among its membership.

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ARBITRATION AND DISARMAMENT.

A decided advance towards an international agreement of some sort in favor of international arbitration was made at The Hague Conference on Friday, when Sir Julian Pauncefote laid before the delegates a proposal for the formal establishment of a permanent arbitration tribunal. The suggestion is not a new one, writers on international law having discussed it before now; its chief recommendation is that it seems at first sight easier to introduce arbitration in this way than by a general treaty. Critics of the plan, however, dispute this.

When the attempt is made to establish a general system of arbitration by treaty, the difficulty must arise, as we found two years ago, (1) that every country is reluctant to agree in advance to arbitrate all disputes, and (2) that no line of division can be found to separate those which seem fit for arbitration from those which do not seem so. Each country imagines that there are some things which must be fought for, but what they are, no man can precisely define in advance. They are usually said to be questions involving the national honor and the integrity of the national territory; but any boundary dispute involves the national integrity, and any dispute whatever involves "honor," if those who have the decision of peace or war happen to think so or to be willing to say so. Down to the year 1898, it never occurred to any one that an injury to the vessel of one nation in the harbor of another with whom it was at peace, by persons unknown, was a ground for war between the two nations. Yet it became a *casus belli* with Spain last year, in spite of an offer by the Spanish Government to arbitrate the question of responsibility, which the President in his message on the subject admitted "remained to be fixed."

Two generations ago, a large party in this country wanted to go to war with England over the Northwest boundary; to-day most people see no objection to arbitrating the Alaska boundary. No means of settling what a question of "honor and integrity" is, exists, and consequently an "honor and integrity" clause inserted in an arbitration treaty would be nugatory. To us it seems obvious that such a clause is of no sort of use, because it means nothing more than that there are always cases in which, no matter how nations bind themselves, they will fight, and this will be true whether it is put in a treaty or not. But, for some reason which is not very intelligible, it seems to be thought in many quarters that an agreement of two or more countries to settle all their differences amicably would involve the dreadful risk that it might lead to a peaceful settlement of some controversy which, for the credit of one side or the other, required a war. Demonstrate as you will that treaties by the score have been torn up for the sake of war, there seems to be still a lurking suspicion that it would be really dangerous to agree to arbitrate everything. Yet no one can point out in advance what should not be arbitrated.

To get over these and other difficulties, it is suggested that two or more nations establish a permanent Court of Arbitration, to which any nations may refer disputes. The court would derive its authority from the repute of its members, who would be judges or legal writers of high rank; and it would be always ready for any business which might be referred to it.

The first criticism of this suggestion that occurs is, that the plan meets and overcomes a difficulty which does not exist. No two countries which wanted to arbitrate ever had much difficulty in forming a court. The great difficulty is in agreeing to refer the question in dispute to arbitrators, not in finding the arbitrators. No doubt the conferees at The Hague might take steps which would lead to the creation of such a court, and, if good salaries were given, no difficulty would be found in getting judges. Indeed, it would be easy to get them, because they would, until something was referred to them, which might not be for some time, have nothing to do. But the obstacles in the way of referring to this court any new international question which might arise, would be very much what they are now. The mere existence of a court does not remove them.

Again, admitting that the plan of creating a permanent international court is good, as far as it goes, its existence alone does not give it power. Its powers it can derive only from an international agreement to submit questions to it, and the creation of the court must, therefore, either be supplemented, after its creation, by an agreement of two or more nations to submit disputes to it, or reinforced by such an agreement among two or more nations in advance.

Those who take this view of the matter contend that if The Hague Conference results in the establishment of an arbitral tribunal alone, the real difficulties surrounding arbitration will be masked rather than removed. But they, as well as all interested in the matter, admit that if it results in the establishment of an arbitral tribunal, reinforced by an international agreement, signed by even two leading Powers, it will have accomplished the most beneficent work of the age.

The question of disarmament is more closely connected with that of arbitration than many people suppose. The introduction of a really effective system of arbitration would do more to make disarmament permanently feasible than even a present reduction of land and naval forces. A reduction of these diminishes the number of persons to whom war may be profitable; an arbitration treaty removes the main causes which lead to armament, *i. e.*, the constant expectation of war as the usual means of settling international differences. When two or more nations have provided a peaceful means of settling all quarrels, there must seem less and less reason for keeping themselves armed to the teeth in order to settle them by violent means. With every new arbitration, the reasons for disarming would grow. Historically, arbitration and disarmament have gone hand in hand. Some sixty instances of arbitration have occurred since the close of the Napoleonic wars, and to more than half of these the United States has been a party, Great Britain coming next with twenty cases. Now, the United States and Great Britain happen to be the two countries in the world which have refrained from arming their entire male population.

We are not among those who are sceptical as to good coming of The Hague Conference. But we trust to see it go much further than the mere creation of an arbitral tribunal, ready for business which might never come to it. We hope to see this reinforced by a determined effort at an international agreement to make use of the tribunal as constituted. It is on such an agreement that the introduction of arbitration will hinge at The Hague in 1899, exactly as it did at Washington in 1897. The suggestion has been made that, besides the arbitral tribunal and the agreement to use it (binding on any nations which choose to make themselves parties to it), there should be a third feature—that of compulsion. This was the idea advanced by Mr. D. D. Field in his proposals for an international code in 1872. He would have had not only a permanent arbitration agreement, but a provision that if any nation, which was a party to it, should fail to arbitrate, all the other nations should at once make war upon it. In theory there is, perhaps, no objection to this, but practical reasons for not endeavoring to go so far will readily suggest themselves.

CIVILIZATION VS. BARBARISM.

There was one passage in the serene and sane and thoroughly wise speech of Admiral Sampson last week, at the celebration of Queen Victoria's eightieth birthday, which we commend to the thoughtful consideration of Gov. Roosevelt. In paying a personal tribute to Admiral Dewey, he said:

"But does sea power or any other power promote a fraternal bond? I think not. Sea power suggests a fight, the exercise of destructive force. It is naturally in order to question whether exercise of power of any kind promotes brotherly love. It may be for the well-being of the naughty small boy to be whipped by his larger brother. It may be for the good of the bullying senior to get a drubbing at the hands of his little but valiant junior; but it is not brotherly love that is built upon this fight, though I do not deny that brotherly love may result from the bet-

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ter state of mind engendered thereby. The boys become men, their points of view alter with their growth. Respect and faith once established, they can afford to forget small differences of earlier days; their mutual good depends upon their being on the best of terms. And I believe the day is fast coming when England and America—no longer boys, but grown-up men—shall lead the voice of peace, of grown-up experience, to the opinion now being represented by the Peace Conference at The Hague. Not fighting, but peace among nations, is to bring the world on fastest toward the millennium of prosperity and true living which we all long for."

Let us contrast this with some of the many passages in Gov. Roosevelt's recent speech in Chicago, in which, as is his wont, he glorified war and fighting as the only remedies of a nation against what he is fond of calling on all occasions "ignoble peace." This phrase is repeated again and again with tiresome iteration, which shows the hold it has upon his mind and the deep contempt that he feels for all opponents of war as war. We quote a few samples:

"I wish to preach, not the doctrine of ignoble ease, but the doctrine of the strenuous life."

"A life of ignoble ease, a life of that peace which springs merely from lack either of desire or of power to strive after great things, is as little worthy of a nation as of an individual."

"We cannot sit huddled within our borders and avow ourselves merely an assemblage of well-to-do hucksters, who care nothing for what happens beyond."

"A war, too [the present one in the Philippines], in which our brave men who follow the flag must pay with their blood for the silly mock-humanitarianism of the prattlers who sit at home in peace."

"I preach to you, then, my countrymen, that our country calls not for the life of ease, but for the life of strenuous endeavor. The twentieth century looms before us big with the fate of many nations. If we stand idly by, if we seek merely swollen, slothful ease and ignoble peace, if we shrink from the hard contests where men must win at hazard of their lives, and at the risk of all they hold dear, then the bolder and stronger peoples will pass us by, and will win for themselves the domination of the world."

This is the gospel of war for the sake of war, of fighting, not merely or necessarily for a just and righteous and inevitable cause, but for the effect upon your own virility. Whatever you do, you must fight. The worst thing that can happen to a man or a nation is to remain long in peace. That is to become "despicable," "ignoble," "slothful," an object of contempt to yourself and to the world. This is the view of the savage, the barbarian. If Governor Roosevelt had lived seven centuries ago, Richard the Lion-hearted and his associate Crusaders would have had an effective and congenial ally. His sentiments about war and peace are precisely those which Richard and his contemporaries had, and one wonders every time our bellicose Governor makes his now so familiar speech on the subject, how it happens that he was born so late in the world's progress, how it happens that he is so belated a "left-over." One searches in vain through his utterances for any recognition of despised peace as the promoter of civilization. Peace is well enough in his eyes if it be not too long maintained. A world in permanent peace, to his mind, is a world peopled with cowards, sloths, weaklings, and silly prattlers.

As against a view of life like this, the calm utterances of a professional and veteran warrior—a man of high courage and valiant deeds—such as we quote from Admiral Sampson, are timely and reassuring. No nation ever needed such words more than we need them now. We have passed through a thoroughly childish war, and have been in a condition of childish exultation over it since its close. The time has come when, as the Admiral says, we should be, as a nation, "no longer boys, but grown-up men," should "lead the voice of peace, of grown-up experience." The Roosevelt view of life is essentially a boy's view, and if it were to become the permanent basis of a national policy, would make us the most turbulent people the world has ever seen. Our national life would become one perpetual Donnybrook Fair, with "rows" with every Power that got within range of us, for no other purpose than the development of our "virile strength," lest we become a nation of sloths.

Happily there is no danger of such a future for us. Our Governor is not taken seriously by anybody except himself when he talks "war." He has so many useful qualities as a political force that people condone the barbarian side of him, and try to keep faith in him as an effective agent for the reform of political abuses. It is, nevertheless, a great pity that he is so constructed mentally as to be unable to see the harm which this boyish glorification of war does to his own reputation as a sane and safe public leader and administrator. Already it may be said that he has a political future of great promise, perhaps greater than his ambition. But will the people of this country ever trust him in a station in which he can carry out his views of war as the great instrument of human progress?

A GOLD CURRENCY.

There has been a shortage of paper currency in the United States for more than a year, and the question how the deficiency should be made good has engaged a great deal of discussion. The reason why the shortage exists is that there has been an increase of business, which has called for a larger number of instruments of exchange. These instruments are of various kinds, but mainly two, bank checks and circulating notes. The latter consist of national banknotes and several kinds of Government notes. There is no limit to the amount of bank checks except the amount of bank deposits and bank credits. Consequently, any increased demand for this kind of instruments of exchange is immediately and automatically supplied. Not so with the other kind of circulating medium. This is rigid and unchangeable. Government notes cannot be issued in any larger amount than now exists, nor is it desirable that they should be. Banknotes might be issued in larger amounts, but evidently there is no profit in such issues. If there were, the bankers would put them out. The only remaining resource is gold. This is always available and we have plenty of it in stock. We have imported $217,000,000 within three years, and have produced at least $100,000,000 more. But we are not fond of carrying gold in our pockets or in belts strapped around our waists. Its weight is an inconvenience. The need of a paper medium to take its place is strongly felt.

Leaving aside for the present the larger and more scientific plan of the Indianapolis Currency Commission, which has the approval of the leading economists of the country, we invite attention to a mode of relief already available, which can be put in force without new legislation and at a moment's notice. It is embraced in section 12 of the act of July 12, 1882, in these words:

"That the Secretary of the Treasury is authorized and *directed* to receive deposits of gold coin with the Treasurer or Assistant Treasurers of the United States in sums not less than twenty dollars, and to issue certificates therefor, corresponding with the denominations of United States notes. . . . *Provided*, that the Secretary of the Treasury shall *suspend* the issue of such gold certificates whenever the amount of gold coin and gold bullion in the Treasury reserved for the redemption of United States notes falls below $100,000,000."

The first clause of this law was enacted in 1863, and was in continuous operation until April, 1893. The second clause (the proviso requiring its suspension whenever the gold reserve should fall below $100,000,000) was enacted in 1882 and was put in practical operation for the first time in 1893, under Secretary Carlisle, when the gold reserve in the Treasury did fall below the sum named. Previously any holder of gold could take it to the Treasury, deposit it, and receive gold certificates in denominations not less than twenty dollars. The Bank of England is under the same requirement to receive gold in any amount and at any time, and issue its notes therefor in denominations not less than £5.

Secretary Carlisle suspended the operation of the law when the gold reserve fell below $100,000,000, but he did not resume it when the reserve rose above that sum. During the greater part of his term of office, being engaged in an almost daily struggle "to keep his head above water," he might have been excused for construing the word "suspend" as though it were the equivalent of "discontinue" or "cease." As a matter of fact, he did so construe it. He made an order that the issue of gold certificates of deposit should not be resumed, no matter how high the gold reserve should rise. His successor, Mr. Gage, finding that order in force, has sim-

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ply left it in force, although he might change it if he should see fit to do so.

If Congress had intended that the issue of gold certificates should, in the contingency named, cease and determine, it would doubtless have said so. The word "suspend" does not convey such meaning. The Century Dictionary defines it, "To cause to cease *for a time*." This is the common acceptation of it. The time during which it should cease was clearly fixed, *i. e.*, until the gold reserve should again be above $100,000,000. Anybody who will take the trouble to read the debate in the Senate (June 21, 1882) when the proviso in question was adopted, will find not a word implying that the suspension of the issue of gold certificates was to be continuous and final.

If citizens have a legal right to deposit gold in the Treasury and to receive certificates therefor in certain denominations, endowed with certain attributes, and if this right has been taken from them without the authority of law, there is not much more to be said. It will be well, however, to glance at the matter in its financial and economical aspects. The Treasury Department, like all other departments of the government, exists for the benefit of the people. Its first duty is to conform to the law. Its second is to construe the law in any case of doubt for the benefit of the people. It would be a great public advantage if there were some way of converting our superfluous gold into a more convenient medium of exchange. The goodness of the gold certificates is not in question. Indeed, one of the arguments advanced against them is that they will be considered better than greenbacks, and that there will be a tendency to draw gold from the Treasury by means of greenbacks and to redeposit it in exchange for gold certificates, the latter being considered a preferred claim upon the Treasury.

This view savors of timidity. It bears the contagion of panic and is calculated to create the very distrust which it apprehends. All experience teaches that the banker or financier who shows perfect readiness to redeem his paper, is the one least likely to be called upon to do so. On the other hand, the one who betrays any doubt as to his own solvency, breeds distrust instead of allaying it. It took a long time to educate the American people and their rulers to the knowledge that all kinds of currency, including silver certificates, stand on the same broad, infallible basis, and must be maintained at par with gold, but that fact is now so well understood that no discrimination is made between them in the minds of the people. Everybody is glad to get the certificates because everybody knows they will be kept at par. It is impossible that any form of Government issues should be better than any other form, except in case of complete national bankruptcy and financial ruin. It is impossible that gold certificates should be better than greenbacks or any other kind of circulating medium unless the Government itself encourages the opinion that they are so. At the present time the amount of gold in the Treasury ($228,398,312) is so enormous that nobody can imagine any preference being given to gold certificates over greenbacks in the estimation of depositors, or of bankers, or of the public generally.

It may be said that if we relieve the pinching of the shoe now by reopening the door for gold certificates, we shall postpone the time for a thorough reform of the currency like that proposed by the Indianapolis Commission. We believe in the Indianapolis plan, but we see other dangers to arise from the pinching of the shoe. Public impatience may take the form of a demand for a worse kind of currency instead of a better—for more greenbacks, or the free coinage of silver, or the "sub-treasury plan," or any other specious folly. Gold certificates are always as good as gold. There is no danger of having too many of them. They are not an element of inflation or of distrust. They can never create a panic. Of all forms of paper currency they are the least open to criticism. General reform of the currency will take place when all shoe-pinching has been eased and forgotten, and probably not before.

MORE ANTI-TRUST LAWS.

As thorough-going an anti-Trust law as any that we have seen since the legislative anti-property craze set in, is that passed by the Texas Legislature, by an overwhelming vote, and just signed by the Governor. The following are some of its provisions: Section 1 provides that any corporation which becomes a member of a pool or Trust designed to regulate or even to fix and maintain the prices of anything whatever, including insurance premiums, shall be deemed guilty of a conspiracy. Section 2 defines a "monopoly" as any "union" of anything, including "acts" by anybody, whereby the "results described are calculated to be produced"; any one "engaged in" a monopoly is to be deemed guilty of a conspiracy to defraud. By sections 3 and 4 any manufacturer who sells at less than cost, or gives away, for the purpose of driving out competitors, is to be deemed guilty of a conspiracy to form a monopoly or Trust. Section 5 fixes the penalty for violating the act at not less than $200, and not more than $5,000, for any such offence, and for every day of its continuance. By section 6, if two or more merchants agree to limit trade or competition by refusing to buy from or sell to any person or corporation because corporations are not members of the "combination," they are subject to the penalties of the act. Section 7 provides for the forfeiture of the charter of any concern violating the act. Other sections provide that any corporation which, owning a manufacturing patent, shall use it and at the same time fail to put it on the market for sale, "shall be adjudged a monopoly." Section 12 provides that the sale of anything in violation of the act shall be void, and the purchasers shall not be liable for payment. Section 13 makes any business such as that carried on by the Associated Press a monopoly. The act goes into effect on January 31, 1900.

This is far more drastic than the Donnelly bill, just passed by our Legislature, and signed by the Governor, which merely makes agreements creating a monopoly or restraining competition illegal, and provides machinery to secure evidence.

The Texas law is no doubt all the more relished in Texas because an Arkansas statute, based on similar principles, has just broken down in the courts. The Arkansas statute provided—so the Attorney-General maintained—that any foreign insurance company doing business in Arkansas which became, anywhere in the wide world, a member of a pool or Trust to fix the price of insurance, should be subject to a penalty of $5,000. This act promised well, for on the day it was signed sixty-three insurance companies in Arkansas suspended business. But the Supreme Court has now handed down a decision to the effect that the Legislature could not have intended that an agreement made by an English or German Insurance Company in Hong Kong to fix the rate of insurance in that locality should create a liability to pay $5,000, as a penalty for the act, in Little Rock. This decision may be right, and was followed by the immediate resumption of business by the sixty-three insurance companies; while the Attorney-General is led by it to a gloomy view of the future, and to declare that he will at once—if costs are paid—dismiss all pending suits, and will not in future prosecute a Trust, "if it should organize in front of the Statehouse with a brass band." It remains to be seen whether the Texas law, which also includes a provision against crimes committed by insurance companies, will fare any better.

One section of the Texas anti-Trust law is aimed at the Roller Baling Machine. This is one of the most important inventions of recent years. Instead of taking a great mass of cotton and squeezing it, and the air contained in it, into a small but very elastic cubical bale, and then binding it with iron or steel hoops, the machine draws the fibre between rollers, which squeeze all the air out of it, and then delivers the cotton itself in the form of a tight roll, with no more elasticity than a roll of calico, and requiring no iron clamps to

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hold it. The chief advantage of this method of handling cotton is that the liability to fire is greatly reduced. The owners of the Roller patent seek to make their profit out of the invention by leasing machines, or by rolling the cotton themselves, instead of selling the machines. In other words, they "sell territory." The Texas Legislature wants them to sell machines, and accordingly puts the following section into the anti-Trust law:

"Every corporation, copartnership, firm, or individual who may be the owner or lessee of a patent to any machinery, intended, used, or designed for manufacturing any raw materials or preparing the same for market by any wrapping, baling, or other process, who shall lease, rent, or operate the same in their own name and refuse or fail to put the same on the market for sale, shall be adjudged a monopoly and subject to all the pains and penalties provided in this act."

It is scarcely necessary to say that no State can override or alter in any manner the patent laws of Congress, or limit or curtail their operation. The subject of patents was committed to Congress by the Constitution in Article I., section 8, clause 8, which says that "Congress shall have power to . . . promote the progress of science and the useful arts by securing for limited times to authors and inventors the *exclusive right* to their respective writings and discoveries." Congress has legislated on this subject. It has not restricted the rights of patentees to the sale of the machines invented by them. It has not required them to put machines on the market. That would not be an exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries. The only restriction imposed by Congress is that a patent shall not continue in force more than seventeen years. While it is in force, the holders of the patent can use it in whatever way they please in New York or Texas, and no State Government can molest them or make them afraid. Moreover, the law of Congress says that the courts of the United States shall have exclusive jurisdiction of patent cases. So the courts of Texas could not be invoked to pass judgment on any case arising under the section quoted above.

Thus far, the campaign against the Trusts in the State courts cannot be said to have been marked by much success. Nor has it triumphed, except in a barren way, in the Federal courts. The recent decisions of the United State Supreme Court to the effect that railway combinations to maintain rates are illegal, as in "restraint of trade," were made under a Federal anti-Trust statute, and the judges went as far as they could in latitudinarian construction to bring cases affecting railway rates under it at all. But the decisions have been almost without practical effect. They did indeed break up the existing agreements, but this simply made some new means of fixing and maintaining railway rates more necessary than ever; and consequently a new era of railway consolidation has set in, which promises to end in a dozen "combinations" owning the whole railway system of the country. It is also a fact worth noticing that never in the history of the country have such stupendous combinations of industrial capital been made as in the present heyday of anti-Trust legislation.

Such facts as these ought to be carefully considered by those who imagine that "anti-Trust" can be made an effective battle-cry in a Presidential campaign. Hitherto the anti-Trust legislation has been, in great measure, non-partisan—even the Donnelly act, though a Tammany measure, was passed by a Republican Legislature, and signed by a Republican Governor—and has generally proved futile. It would be difficult to divide the country over an issue in which each party seems anxious to outbid the other. And it will probably be still more difficult to arouse enthusiasm over it, unless you can show that legislation, where laws have been passed, has been effective. As we have often pointed out, some Trusts are bolstered up by the Tariff; but those who are managing the present campaign against Trusts seem always disposed to avoid this question. Their idea, so far as they have one, seems to be that "combinations" of capital exist only for purposes of oppression, and, therefore, ought to be broken up. The economic ideas of a Populist agitator and legislator are not very different from those of the mob he dupes with platforms and laws.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF AMERICA.

NEW YORK, May 25, 1899.

About two years ago it was arranged that the Council of the Archæological Institute and the Managing Committees of the American Schools of Classical Studies at Athens and in Rome should hold their annual meetings at the same time. The two committees, while *de jure* creatures of the Institute, were not such *de facto*, and it was felt that all the organizations would be more closely drawn together and would receive mutual benefit if their officers could meet together at stated intervals for the interchange of ideas. The plan has proved a success, and now, each year, the three last days of the second week in May witness the gathering of a goodly number of persons from different quarters to discuss the condition of the Institute and to provide for the needs of the coming season. The meetings of the present year were held on May 11, 12, and 13, in the rooms of the Department of Architecture, Columbia University, and I venture to hope that some account of the proceedings will be of general interest to those who care for the study of antiquity.

The session held on Thursday, May 11, was that of the Managing Committee of the School in Rome, and Prof. Hale of Chicago, the chairman, presided over the deliberations. The most serious difficulties for those who have had this school in charge since it was founded in 1895 have been of a financial nature. Enough money was gathered through a general subscription to start work and to keep the School in operation for three years, but the hope that before this time had passed a permanent fund might be established has not been realized, and it has become necessary to raise the annual income by subscription. Another year of prosperous life has indeed been assured the School under this system, but of course no such method of gathering resources can give that feeling of permanence which is necessary to a lasting success. The officers of the School are seeking, with characteristic enthusiasm and energy, to raise the needed funds, and various colleges and universities are beginning to lend aid by making small annual subscriptions, as they have done in the case of the School at Athens. Such support through the coöperation of various colleges is truly an admirable thing from many points of view, for it establishes very close relations between the foreign school and the educational system at home, and it at the same time brings the colleges together to work for a common end; but, as the experience of the School at Athens has proved, it is permanently valuable more as an auxiliary than as a main source of income. The subscriptions are not always easy to raise, and few boards of trustees feel justified in assuming responsibility for the annual contribution.

But, even if the Roman School is forced for the moment to depend on faith as its banker rather more than is quite comfortable, this has not deterred its active managers from taking the much-needed step of establishing a more permanent directorate, and they have wisely elected Prof. Richard Norton Director of the School for five years. Prof. Norton has already been for two years a professor in the School; he has studied at the Athenian School for as long a period, and, besides this, he has passed some time at the University of Munich in archæological work. In this country he has had experience in teaching at the Harvard Summer School and at Bryn Mawr College. Certainly the Roman School is fortunate that he is so situated as to be able to accept its directorship. It is, however, very desirable that the School should be kept closely in touch with the colleges and universities at home, and to this end an annually appointed professor will be sent out as heretofore. For 1899-1900 the committee elected Prof. Platner of Western Reserve University; for 1900-1901, Prof. Kelsey of the University of Michigan; and for 1901-1902, Prof. Abbott of Chicago.

After providing for the archæological and educational work of the School, the committee proceeded to the no less important duty of electing a Chairman of the Managing Committee. Prof. Hale has occupied this responsible position since the foundation of the School, and has expended time and energy without stint in responding to its exacting demands upon him. For a year or more past, however, he has felt that he could not carry the burden much longer, and he therefore presented his formal resignation. To succeed him the committee chose Prof. Minton Warren, formerly of Johns Hopkins, now of Harvard, and as acting Chairman and Secretary, Prof. E. T. Merrill of Wesleyan. Both of these gentlemen have been actively engaged in the conduct of the School from its beginning, and both have had a term of service in Rome. The resignation of the Treasurer of the School, Mr. C. C. Cuyler, was referred to a committee, and the hope was most ear-

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nestly expressed that he might consent to reconsider it. Mr. Cuyler's energy and unflagging interest have already placed the friends of the School under great obligations to him, but that only makes them the more loath to dispense with his generous services at this critical period.

In the case of the meeting of the Managing Committee of the School at Athens, which took place on Friday, the second day of the sessions, there is perhaps less of immediate importance to chronicle. This school is now nearly twenty years old, its Director, Professor R. B. Richardson, is completing his sixth year of continuous residence, and tradition, therefore, tends to regulate the deliberations of its officers. Prof. Seymour of Yale, the chairman, was able to report a very successful year of work. The number of students has been larger than ever before, and the evidence of their better preparation for work in Athens is becoming increasingly apparent. Smith College has joined the league of supporting colleges during the past year, and the Agnes Hoppin Fellowship for women, which was recently established for a period of three years by Mrs. Courtland Hoppin, Miss Sarah Hoppin, and Dr. J. C. Hoppin, has been continued during the lifetime of the donors. The School may therefore hope for the present to award the fellowships annually, a School fellowship of $600, one maintained by the Archæological Institute of the same value, and the Hoppin fellowship of $1,000. The chairman also reported another successful season at the excavations in Corinth, where the location of the chief centres for topographical research seems established with certainty. It is greatly to be hoped that, with this much accomplished, the work may not be brought to a standstill through lack of money.

Prof. B. I. Wheeler of Cornell, as chairman of the committee on fellowships, announced that the fellowships for the ensuing year had been awarded to Mr. Benjamin Powell (Cornell, 1896), Mr. James Tucker, jr. (Brown, 1897), and the Agnes Hoppin fellowship to Miss H. A. Boyd (Smith, 1892), who has previously held one of the other fellowships. Miss Leach, professor of Greek at Vassar, succeeds Prof. Wheeler as the head of the committee on fellowships. As annually appointed professors, Prof. Smyth of Bryn Mawr will go out next year, and in 1900-1901 Prof. E. D. Perry of Columbia.

The financial condition of the School at Athens, even though this school is older and more firmly established than the sister institution in Rome, is still a source of some solicitude to its managers. Its current income is very largely derived from the contribution of the various supporting universities and colleges, and, as such contributions are to a great extent made up of small subscriptions by individuals, the permanence of the revenue may at any time be put in jeopardy. Through economy and careful financing, and by the readiness of many to work for the School without remuneration, it has been possible to begin gathering a permanent fund, but the increase of this fund is each year becoming a more pressing necessity to the School. Surely these two American institutions in foreign lands may reasonably appeal to the many benefactors of learning in our country for help in raising the comparatively small endowments which are needful to their success. They have become really a part of our educational system, and they have already markedly affected the study of classical antiquity in the colleges; they are about the only educational undertakings which have called forth a real co-operation between different institutions, thus helping to counteract the unfortunate tendency of our colleges and universities to let local interests and prejudices interfere with that which is for the benefit of all; they often lend a hand also to the chance traveller, and give him the little guidance in two of the world's great centres of civilization which makes to him all the difference between the profitable employment of his time and mere aimless sightseeing. As a possible form of endowment it might perhaps be suggested that the two School libraries, or either one of them, could for no very large sum be made to perpetuate the name of some friend of sound learning.

Saturday morning, the final day of the sessions, witnessed the assembling of the Council of the Archæological Institute, under the presidency of Prof. John Williams White of Harvard. Some thirty members were present, and ten more were represented by proxies. The President opened the meeting by giving an account of his management of the affairs of the Institute during the last year. This was followed by the regular reports of the chairmen of the two School committees, and by the interesting report of Prof. Seymour, as chairman of the committee which has in charge the publication of the results of the excavations at the Argive Heræum. This promises to be much the most important publication which the Institute and the Athenian School have yet issued. For the general oversight of the work, Prof. Charles Waldstein, under whose direction the excavations in Argos were conducted, is responsible, but he is to have a company of worthy helpers associated with him. The different topics will be distributed as follows: Mr. Tilton, Topography and Architecture; Prof. Waldstein, Sculpture; Mr. Chase, Terracottas; Mr. De Cou, Bronzes; Prof. Richardson, Inscriptions; Dr. Hoppin, Vases; Prof. R. Norton, Gems; Mr. Lythgoe, Scarabs. There will be, in all, more than a hundred plates, and between three and four hundred illustrations in the text. A pleasant event of the morning session was the graceful speech of Prof. Waldstein, proposing that this Heræum publication should be dedicated to Prof. C. E. Norton, as the founder and first President of the Archæological Institute. Prof. Norton made an appreciative and sympathetic reply.

It had been hoped that this year would see the establishment of a school in Palestine by the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis, under the auspices of the Institute, but the necessary preparations are not yet complete, and final action awaits the return of Prof. J. H. Thayer, who has the matter much at heart, but who is now absent in Europe. The report on this plan was made by the Rev. Dr. John P. Peters.

There is also another direction in which the Institute desires to extend its activity, this time not to seek "fresh woods and pastures new," but to resume a temporarily neglected line of work—that of the archæological study of this continent. Since the publication of the series of investigations by Mr. Bandelier, nothing, or almost nothing, of this kind has been done, and when President White came into office two years ago he rightly felt that it was a great mistake for the Institute to be turning its attention so exclusively to classic work. A committee was therefore appointed to consider the question, and its first step was to recommend that the board of editors of the *Journal of Archæology* be increased by the addition of an editor who should represent the study of American antiquity. Prof. Henry W. Haynes of Boston was accordingly chosen to this office. The committee next recommended the election of a councillor whose special interest was in the archæology of America. The Executive Committee of the Council at once adopted the recommendation and elected Mr. Charles P. Bowditch of Boston as a Vice-President of the Institute to succeed the late Dr. Pepper of Philadelphia. No one who knows of the work that Mr. Bowditch has done in Honduras—his own work and that which he has made it possible for others to do—can doubt the wisdom of the committee's selection. Mr. Bowditch made a vigorous speech before the Council, urging the revival of interest in American work, and it was voted that a special committee on this subject be appointed by the President in consultation with Mr. Bowditch. Mr. Edward Robinson of Boston also spoke urging the essential unity of the study of prehistoric antiquity in all countries, and pointing out its value to classical archæology in throwing light upon the Mycenæan and pre-Mycenæan periods.

The report of Prof. Wright as editor-in-chief of the *American Journal of Archæology* showed that publication to be in a prosperous condition. When he took charge of it the issue was much behindhand; now, however, the first number for 1899 has appeared, and by the end of the year there is every prospect that all numbers will be issued on time. President White asked that he be authorized to arrange in the name of the Institute for the reproduction in facsimile of the *Codex Ravennas* of Aristophanes. The work, he said, was likely to pay for itself, as the facsimiles of the Laurentian Sophocles and Aeschylus published respectively by the English and Italians had done, and in any case he was himself willing to assume the financial risk. The authorization was, of course, promptly given, and we may now expect that the Institute will add another noteworthy publication to its lengthening list. The old officers were re-elected for the ensuing year, with one or two slight changes in the roll of Vice-Presidents, which now reads as follows: President Gilman of Baltimore, Mr. C. P. Bowditch of Boston, Mr. M. A. Ryerson of Chicago, Prof. Seymour of New Haven, Mr. Talcott Williams of Philadelphia.

The day was now far spent, and the session was appropriately brought to a close by the passage of a resolution that the Archæological Institute should make arrangements to hold, during the next Christmas recess, its first meeting for scientific discussion and for the reading of papers.

J. R. WHEELER.

THE MERIT SYSTEM IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

BRUNSWICK, Me., May 9, 1899.

In a former letter to the *Nation*, I called attention to some of the characteristics of the merit system as exemplified in the consular and diplomatic service of Great Britain. The details of the system there noted have application, of course, mainly to so much of

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the foreign service as is conducted by officials sent from England and holding direct relations with the Colonial Department. In the purely internal affairs of the respective colonies, however, the primary conditions are different. Most of the colonies have a preponderant native population of but a moderate degree of civilization, while the diversity of situation, interests, and natural resources is very great. On the surface, the British possessions might seem to promise a rich harvest for the spoilsmen. How far the promise is fulfilled may be seen from an examination of the 'Colonial Office List,' an annual official publication similar to the 'Foreign Office List,' and of which the volume for 1899 is just to hand.

The portion of the colonial empire of Great Britain under the immediate supervision of the Secretary of State for the Colonies (India has a separate administration, and is not considered here) comprises forty distinct and independent governments. Eleven of these have elective assemblies and responsible governments; sixteen have a legislative council nominated by the Crown, with the power reserved to the Crown, save in British Honduras, of legislating by orders in council; nine have legislative councils partly elected and partly appointed; and four have no legislative council, the law-making power being delegated to the officer administering the government. In the responsible or self-governing colonies, the concurrence of the home Government in appointments is not necessary, administrative control being vested in officials dependent upon the support of representative assemblies. There is an executive council, appointed by the Governor, with whose approval appointments are made. This form of administration, familiar in our own country, calls for no further comment.

The governor of a British colony—known also as governor-in-chief or governor-general if his jurisdiction embraces several distinct colonies—is appointed during the pleasure of the Crown, but the term of office is usually six years. Besides general executive functions, the Governor has such powers and duties, and is subject to such restrictions, as are laid down in rules emanating from England, or in the laws of the colony which he serves. Where there is no representative assembly, the initiation of laws belongs in general to him, and in all cases his veto power is absolute.

The appointing power of the Governor is modified by the local circumstances of the colony and by the nature of the office. In the self-governing colonies, as has been said, appointments to public office are made by the Governor with the advice of the executive council, and are neither authorized nor confirmed by commission or warrant from the Queen. Elsewhere, offices are generally bestowed in the name and during the pleasure of the Crown; but in some cases local law confers the appointing power upon the Governor, with or without the concurrence of the council, while a few places are held during good behavior. As a general rule, however, all public offices "of considerable rank, trust, and emoluments" are granted, either provisionally or absolutely, under royal commission. For the purpose of determining what are and what are not places "of considerable rank, trust, and emoluments," offices are divided into three classes. The first includes those whose emoluments do not exceed £100 per annum; the second, those in excess of £100 but not over £200; and the third, those worth more than £200. Places in the first or lowest class are usually at the disposal of the Governor, who must, however, make report of the appointment at the earliest opportunity. Vacancies in the second class are filled by the Colonial Secretary on the recommendation of the Governor, the recommendation being almost uniformly followed. In the case of a vacancy in the third class, the Governor may, as in the second, make a provisional appointment and a recommendation; but the latter has less weight with the Secretary than in cases of the second class.

While no attempt is made to state in advance the precise circumstances under which the recommendations of the Governor will or will not be followed, certain principles are, nevertheless, observed. In general, recommendations in the way of promotion are more favorably regarded than suggestions of persons new to the service; but appointments to new offices are likely to be made directly from England. Appointments of relatives of the Governor, and even of private secretaries and other intimate associates, are rarely confirmed. In all matters of appointment each colony is considered by itself; and while the filling of vacancies by promotion is the rule observed wherever practicable, only the higher officials are likely to be transferred from one colony to another. Further, regard is had to the general state of the colony—its population, wealth, and political condition—as affecting the probable number of persons from whom the local authorities may make selection. Especial importance is attached to local qualifications and experience; and in order that the Colonial Office may have proper knowledge in the premises, the Governor is required to make annually a confidential report on the claims of candidates, whether in the service or not. An exception to the rule of local preference occurs in the cases of chief judicial and financial officers, where "local connection with the colony by birth, family ties, or otherwise, will be considered, generally speaking, to render a candidate ineligible."

In practice, therefore, the patronage of the Colonial Secretary is very small. Minor offices are filled by the appointment of local candidates, where such can be found, and higher offices by promotion, so far as practicable. Only in the case of new offices, high positions, or positions demanding technical or professional qualifications not to be found in the colony, are appointments likely to be made from England. While persons already in the service, accordingly, have a chance to rise, those who wish to enter must commonly do so by way of a minor place. In Ceylon, Hong Kong, and the Straits Settlements, including the Malay States, cadetships have been established, with competitive examinations, for the training of officials for the higher posts; subordinate positions being filled by local appointment, as in the other colonies. There are a few cadetships—non-competitive, but with preference given to graduates of the universities—in the Gold Coast colony, and a few in Fiji; these, with an occasional clerkship in the customs service on the west coast of Africa, complete the list of so-called "junior" clerical positions open to candidates in England. Occasional educational appointments, if of lower grade, are made by advertising for applicants, or through a teachers' agency; higher positions are filled by promotion. Higher medical places, also, are usually filled by transfer or promotion, save in the case of positions calling for administrative as well as professional ability, when selections from outside the service are sometimes made. It is announced that eventually all candidates for medical places will be required to undergo a course of training at the School of Tropical Medicine, now in process of establishment in England.

The power of dismissal is not quite coextensive with the power of appointment. In the self-governing colonies, the power, like that of appointment, is vested in the Governor and executive council, if the office be held, as nearly all are, at the pleasure of the Crown. The executive council itself, in these colonies, holds office at the pleasure of the Governor; but it is "understood that councillors who have lost the confidence of the local Legislature will tender their resignation to the Governor, or discontinue the practical exercise of their functions, in analogy with the usage prevailing in the United Kingdom." In the Crown colonies, the power of dismissal is much restricted, although temporary suspension is allowed, pending inquiry and decision by the Colonial Office. Dismissals of officials receiving £100 or less a year, however, do not require the approval of the Colonial Secretary; but the official is, in every case, entitled to a written statement of the charges against him, and an opportunity to clear himself; and there is also a right of appeal.

A few general provisions, designed to insure honest and effective administration, should also be noted. All salaried public officers are forbidden to engage in trade or commerce without permission from the Governor and the approval of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. In cases where the salary or emoluments of the office are fixed on the assumption that the official gives his entire time to the Government service, the prohibition is usually absolute. Further, no public officer may act as private agent in any matter connected with his official duties. He may not be the editor of a newspaper, nor actively concerned in its management. He is at liberty to discuss in print, over his own signature, matters of general interest, but he must avoid political topics, and refrain from criticising either the Government or its agents. No official may receive gifts or presents from the natives of the colony in which he is serving, save where a refusal would give offence, in which case the present is to be turned over to the Government. Ceremonial presents from natives, whether chiefs or others, become the property of the Government, and return presents are at Government expense.

Even this brief sketch is, I think, sufficient to show the general principles governing British colonial administration. So far as the civil service is concerned, each colony is treated as a unit, and its administrative service is organized to meet its special needs. Wherever possible, offices are filled by the appointment of local candidates, who, though holding nominally at the pleasure of the Crown, enjoy in practice a permanent tenure during good behavior, and are advanced to higher stations as vacancies occur. With rare exceptions, only such officials as are charged with duties touching broad lines of policy, or whose positions demand a training which the colony cannot provide, are sent from England; and, even here, transfers from other colonies are fre-

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quent. Where a system of competitive examinations has been introduced, as in Ceylon, Hong Kong, and the Straits Settlements, the tests are the same as in England, and are under the charge of the Civil-Service Commissioners. Finally, the use of official position as a means to private gain is absolutely prohibited. It is because the colonial service aims at an intelligent, judicious, and stable conduct of affairs, and not because of its novelty or its "spoils," that it has become, for English subjects, an attractive and worthy career. WILLIAM MACDONALD.

Correspondence.

"PIAZZA."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a letter written August 20, 1867, J. L. Motley said to a friend that "he has put a broad verandah (what we so comically call a piazza) all around the house." Our use of the word is certainly singular, and the present is the first attempt that has been made to account for it.

The word *piazza* has, by English-speaking people, been used in three senses. First, for over three centuries, it has been employed by writers and travellers in the sense of a square or open place. To the examples of this, its proper Italian meaning, given in the Stanford Dictionary, could be added other early ones from J. Florio (1598), T. Coryat (1611), and Sir D. Carleton (1616).

Secondly, in England the word has for over two centuries been used to mean an arcade or portico. The explanation of this usage is as follows: Between 1631 and 1634, Inigo Jones laid out Covent Garden for the Earl of Bedford in the form of a square, with an arcade running along the north and the east sides. The square was called Covent Garden Piazza, a term which first occurs in 1634. Writing from Leghorn under date of October 21, 1644, J. Evelyn said: "The piazza is very fair and commodious, and, with the church, . . . gave the first hint to the building both of the church and piazza in Covent Garden with us, though very imperfectly pursued" (Diary, 1889, i., 96). If this is correct, it doubtless explains why a square in London came to be called by an Italian name. But the word *piazza*, at first a designation of the square, was soon applied to the arcades; that on the north side being called the Great Piazza, and that on the east side the Little Piazza. Hence the word came to mean any arcade or portico under which one could walk, and has long been a well-recognized term in English architecture. This change in meaning was accompanied by a change in pronunciation, and *piazza* was corrupted into *piache*, pronounced like the letters *p* + *h*. The following examples illustrate this particular usage.

"Piazza (Ital.) a Market-place or chief street; such as that in *Covent-Garden*, which the vulgar corruptly call the *P-H*. The close Walks are not so properly the *Piazza*, as the ground inclosed within the Rail." 1661, T. Blount, *Glossographia* (2d ed.).

"Well, Madam, I'll take one turn here i' th' *Piazza's*. 1667, J. Dryden, *Sir Martin Mar-all*, Act i., *Comedies, Tragedies, & Operas* (1701), i. 191.

"I have quitted my old lodging, and desire you to direct your letter to be left for me with Mr. Smibert, painter, next door to the King's Arms tavern, in the little piazza, Covent Garden." 1726, G. Berkeley, *Life & Letters, Works* (1871), iv. 132.

"London is really dangerous at this season; the pickpockets, formerly content with mere *filching*, make no scruple to knock people down with bludgeons in *Fleet-street* and the *Strand*, and that at no later hour than eight o'clock at night; but in the Piazzas, Covent-garden, they come in large bodies, armed with couteaus, and attack whole parties." 1743, W. Shenstone, *Letters, Works* (1769), iii. 83.

"He [C. G. Cibber] carved most of the statues of kings round the Royal-exchange, as far as king Charles, and that of Sir Thomas Gresham in the piazza beneath." 1763, H. Walpole, *Anecdotes of Painting in England* (1782), iii. 147.

"Elgin has what in England are called piazzas, that run in many places on each side of the street. It must have been a much better place formerly. Probably it had piazzas all along the town, as I have seen at Bologna. I approve much of such structures in a town, on account of their conveniency in wet weather." 1785, J. Boswell, *Tour to the Hebrides* (2d ed.), 122.

"Piache, *s.* for a piazza, or more properly, an arcade. Though this is now a mere vulgarism of the lowest order, it seems to have been formerly deemed more respectable, since Coles has admitted it into his Dictionary [1722]. Those who now use it pronounce it like *p* and *h*." 1822, R. Nares, *Glossary*, 375.

"We proceeded by the magnificent aqueduct bridge of the Ellsmere Canal, along which Sir W. and I walked,—I think the greatest human edifice I have seen,—and so to Chester, in which ancient city we had barely time to stare a little at the galleries and piazzas of which we have all heard or read." 1825, J. G. Lockhart, in Sir W. Scott's *Familiar Letters* (1894), ii. 335.

In the same sense the word was also employed by J. Macky (1724), J. Ralph (1734), D. Defoe (1753), H. Fielding (1754), B. Franklin (1770), R. Southey (1795), and others. It may be added that St. James's Square, planned about 1663 by the Earl of St. Albans, was alluded to in 1676 as "the Piazza" (H. B. Wheatley's 'Round about Piccadilly,' 1870, p. 356); but it soon lost this name. It has also been stated (in *Notes and Queries*, 7th Ser., i. 463) that to Soho Square, built in 1681, was originally applied the term Piazza; but of this I find no confirmation.

Thirdly, in this country the word *piazza* has undergone another change, both in meaning and in pronunciation. It was introduced here two centuries ago, and was at first employed in its English architectural sense. It soon, however, was used to designate any gallery on the exterior of a building, and so a veranda, either with or without an overhead covering. Exactly when our common pronunciation of the word came into vogue it is impossible to say; but the examples which follow show the history of the term in this country before 1800. First used in the Southern colonies, it apparently did not reach New England until late in the eighteenth century.

"*And be it further enacted* . . . That the said building shall be made in this form, and figure H, . . . That the two parts of the building shall be joined by a cross gallery of thirty foot long, and fifteen foot wide each way, according to the figure herein before specified, raised upon piazzas, and built as high as the other parts of the building; and in the middle thereof, a cupola to surmount the rest of the building." 1699, *Virginia Statutes at Large* (1823), iii. 420-421.

"And for the further encouragement of the owners of the front lots, *Be it also enacted*, That every owner that hath or shall hereafter build a brick house at least two stories high, are hereby permitted and impowered to build piazzas, not exceeding six foot, in the said wharff or front lots, with steps in the said piazzas up to the said house." 1700, *South Carolina Statutes at Large* (1840), vii. 17.

"[The College of William and Mary] is a lofty Pile of Brick Building adorn'd with a *Cupola*. At the *North* End runs back a large Wing, which is a handsome *Hall*, answerable to which the *Chapel* is to be built; and there is a spacious *Piazza* on the *West* Side, from one Wing to the other." 1724, H. Jones, *Present State of Virginia*, 26.

"It [an Orphanage in Georgia] is now weather-boarded and shingled, and a piazza of ten feet wide built all around it: which will be wonderfully convenient in the heat of summer." 1741, G. Whitefield, *Works* (1771), iii. 433.

"The publick Works in this Town [Savannah] are *1st*, A *Court-house*, being one handsome Room with a Piache on three Sides: This likewise serves for a *Church* for divine Service, none having ever been built." 1741, P. Tailfer, &c., *True & Hist. Narrative of the Colony of Georgia*, 104.

"There are also on the Premises a neat handsome Brick House, a large Frame Kitchen, Piazza, &c., with a fine Avenue of English Cherry Trees, leading to the Road." 1761, *Pennsylvania Gazette*, 24 Sept., p. 1-3.

"There are about eleven hundred dwelling-houses in the town [Charleston], built with wood or brick; many of them have a genteel appearance, though generally incumbered with balconies or piazzas; and are always decently, and often elegantly, furnished." 1763, *Short Description of the Province of S. Carolina*, in B. R. Carroll's *Hist. Colls. of S. Carolina* (1836,), ii. 484.

"[Indians] can also distinguish the different ways of making camps and fires; for instance; . . . a Chactaw makes his camp in travelling in form of a sugar loaf; a Chickasaw makes it in form of our arbours; a Creek like to our sheds, or piazzas, to a timber house." 1775, B. Romans, *Natural History of Florida*, 65.

"From the back piazza of our habitation, we command a truly picturesque view into several fertile counties." 1776, W. Eddis, *Letters from America* (1792), 334.

"The tavern . . . stands on the bank of the Delaware, and has a most delightful piazza on the side next the river, which extends the whole length of the house, and is entirely over the water, affording a most beautiful prospect up and down the majestic river." 1787, M. Cutler, in *Life, Journals & Corr.* (1888), i. 251.

"I was in the forenoon busy in my apartment in the council-house, drawing some curious flowers; when, on a sudden, my attention was taken off by a tumult without, at the Indian camp; I stepped to the door opening to the piazza, where I met my friend the old interpreter." 1791, W. Bartram, *Travels through North & South Carolina*, &c., 260.

In its American sense, the word is unknown in England, while its English meaning apparently long ago became obsolete in this country. Finally, attention may be called to two instances of the use of the term in a figurative sense. In 1644 Milton spoke of "the Piatza of one Title page" (Stanford Dictionary); while about 1862 Thoreau wrote: "This was a part of the furniture of Cape Cod. We had for days walked up and down the long and bleak piazza which runs along her Atlantic side, then over the sanded floors of her halls, and now we were being introduced into her boudoir" (*Cape Cod*, 1894, p. 233). ALBERT MATTHEWS.

BOSTON, May 9, 1899.

Notes.

'A Short History of Freethought,' by John M. Robertson, will be published immediately by Macmillan Co., along with 'The Development of the English Novel,' by Prof. W. L. Cross, of Yale. Also, a new edition of the 'Handbook of British, Continental and Canadian Universities, with special mention of the courses open to Women,' compiled for the Graduate Club of Bryn Mawr College by Dr. Isabel Maddison. The object of this book is to give in brief form all the information necessary to assist men or women students intending to study abroad, in the choice of a university or college.

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G. P. Putnam's Sons have nearly ready 'How to Swim,' by Capt. Davis Dalton, chief inspector of the United States Volunteer Life-saving Corps.

Brentano's announce 'A Silent Singer,' by Clara Morris, the actress.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press a "History of America before Columbus,' by P. De Roo, in two volumes; a Life of Bismarck, by Frank Preston Stearns; and 'Lessons in Graphic Shorthand (Gabelsberger),' prepared for the American public by C. R. Lippman.

A new edition of De Morgan's 'Elementary Illustrations of the Differential and Integral Calculus' will be issued by the Open Court Publishing Co., Chicago.

Lawrence & Bullen, London, are about to publish 'Bearers of the Burden: Being Stories of Land and Sea,' by Major W. P. Drury of the Royal Marines.

'Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia' for 1898 will long be a volume set apart for reference. In it, under the rubric *United States*, is to be found a succinct account of the war with Spain, and an alphabetic-numerical statement of the "progress and participation of every regiment, battery, and vessel." Cuba has no long article to itself, but Porto Rico and the Philippines are treated by themselves, with maps and illustrations. The larger portraits of the volume are of Dewey, Gladstone, and Bismarck—the two latter in connection with their obituaries. The Omaha Exposition is another article of importance; and, finally, there is an index to the volumes 1896-1898.

The thirty-second volume of Wilhelm Müller's 'Politische Geschichte der Gegenwart' (Berlin: Springer) gives a clear, concise, and thoroughly impartial survey of the political history of 1898. Considerable space is devoted to an account of the origin and conduct of the Spanish-American war, ending with the peace negotiations at Paris and the purchase of the Philippines. This admirable annual was founded by Wilhelm Müller in 1867, and since his death has been continued by Dr. Karl Wippermann. It is a very useful record of contemporary events, and will be a valuable source of information to future historians.

Our judgment of the 'Dictionary of the Bible' edited by James Hastings, M.A., D.D., and published in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons, has already been carefully given at considerable length, on the appearance of the first volume. It is enough, therefore, to say of the second that it extends from Feign to Kinsman, and contains one map in connection with the article on Jerusalem by C. R. Conder—one of the longest, 18 pages. That on Jesus fills 51; that on John, his Gospel and Epistles, 62.

'On the Edge of the Empire' (Charles Scribner's Sons) is a fair specimen of much of the Kiplingese literature now current. It consists of stories of British military life in native regiments on the Indian frontier. There is not much in it to attract, but the book is not without its lesson to us, as illustrating the complications and moral decadence involved in taking upon us "the white man's burden" in the Philippines and elsewhere. If we believed the spirit of contempt displayed in this volume for all but the military natives were general among the British in India, our wonder at the success of British rule would be greater than it is. We light upon such passages as: "The native of India, like the ape, is at his best in childhood, and deteriorates as he grows older"; "In Bengal, where the blethering of crazy ideas is the valor of as abject a race of cowards as ever walked abroad in the guise of men," etc. Now that the "superior races" command weapons that place the "subject" entirely at their mercy, to what may not their hauteur, uncurbed as it was of old by an uneasy half-held belief in possible reprisal, yet lead? And what will be the end of it all?

The Doubleday & McClure Co. publish a translation of Cottin's compilation of the 'Memoirs of Sergeant Bourgogne,' illustrated. The original is an authentic narrative of a soldier's personal experience in the burning of Moscow and Napoleon's ruinous retreat. Bourgogne was a non-commissioned officer in the Velites attached to the Guard, who were selected from men of some property and education. His intelligence and his natural literary capacity made his recollections and his narrative of them much more trustworthy than those of an ordinary enlisted soldier. His story corroborates the opinion that the *grande armée* lost cohesion from its own weight, and was from the first hardly manageable under Napoleon's system of living on the country. Discipline was already broken and the army half famished when Moscow was reached, and the Sergeant's own conduct, as he tells it, is conclusive proof that even the *corps d'élite* had degenerated into uncontrolled marauders. The horrors of the retreat were in no small degree traceable to this loss of discipline and the helpless disorganization consequent upon it. For continuous and bloodcurdling details of prolonged agony, and for variety of incident in the hell of war surpassing fiction, the story of Bourgogne goes beyond what had been told by others of that astounding chapter in the history of imperial ambition.

'"1812," Napoleon in Russia,' by Vassili Verestchagin, the Russian artist (Charles Scribner's Sons), is a study from original sources of the whole campaign of 1812, and of the military and diplomatic policy on both sides. It has enough of the Russian point of view to impart freshness to the treatment of the subject, and though it has been written to accompany the view of Verestchagin's series of paintings based on the campaign, it shows historical research and grasp, both of larger features and of picturesque details, which give the book a good right to stand on its own merits as a literary production. An introduction by Mr. R. Whiteing sketches the career of the well-known artist, and we may assume that the good English dress of the whole has been assured by the same editing. Essays by the author on the Progress of Art and on Realism give us his artistic ideals and principles before he displays his graphic tableaux of war. The illustrations are half-tone reproductions from his own paintings, with spirited little marginal sketches in the text. A good photogravure portrait of the author in national costume is the frontispiece. It may fairly be doubted whether any other so brief treatment of the Moscow campaign makes, for the general reader, a more satisfactory and intelligible presentation of the subject.

'J. Chamberlain,' by Achille Viallate (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is the subject of a recent biographical study, to which Émile Boutmy contributes a preface. "Is he a statesman, or only a politician?" is, according to M. Boutmy, the question which naturally arises in one's mind after a survey of Mr. Chamberlain's varied career. The answer given by Boutmy is that the Colonial Secretary deserves to be called a statesman, though not, he hastens to add, in the French sense of a public man whose opinions are based on principles which are for him the object of a "glowing and tenacious worship."

Dr. George Polonsky has made a German translation of a work on the economy of Russia since the emancipation of the serfs, but has incorporated in it some of the most extraordinary passages of English it has been our misfortune to meet. Thus, Col. Wright is made to say: "The thole industry has now become greetly specialiced separate factories bring engaged esclusively in the manufacture of bond and her cut stock and uppers also in making of slittenings, heels insodes, linings, tips clasps, strings staples and variopus other articles "(p. 112). Even this is eclipsed by the note printed on p. 449: "It may, and if it lat long enough it will surley produce a fundamntal agrarian revolution. J mean a revolution in the condition of landed property-wtich will and both the pomestschik and the mutschik and replace them," etc. One might reasonably expect at this day that the large publishing-houses in Germany would pay more attention to the correct printing of English than to permit such unnecessary errors as New Gampshir, Massasusets, Rod Anland, and Yermont—all in two lines (p. 146); while the "manufacture cleese in beinpridegated more and more" is intended for a quotation from an official report that any library of size would possess. The book bears the imprint of a Munich firm, and is entitled 'Die Volkswirtschaft in Russland nach der Bauern-Emancipation.' The author is Nicolai-on.

In *McClure's Magazine* for June, Mr. Cleveland Moffett describes the latest miracle in science, Marconi's wireless telegraphy, with the aid of numerous illustrations of apparatus and stations, a portrait of the inventor, etc. Dispatches were transmitted and received by the writer himself, as here recorded. The world-thrill occasioned by the first messages sent over the luckless cable of 1858 was not repeated when, in July, 1898, the Dublin *Daily Express* published bulletins of the Kingstown regatta from its observation steamer while the yachts were beyond the range of the telescope. Yet the new prospect is far more marvellous than the old, and the medium of communication, the Hertzian rays, even more "psychic" than the electric or the X-rays. Mr. Moffett reports some of the speculations he heard from one of Marconi's staff, including possible telegraphy from on shipboard through a submarine cable terminating seaward in a receiver. Marconi's "coherer" is the pivot of his system; by it the gentle ether impulse is made to call into play the power of the home battery, very much as, in automatic regulation of steam-heating, the feeble electric current determined by the set thermometer releases compressed air to operate the steam-valves.

M. Loewy, director of the Paris Observatory, in a timely and sympathetic sketch of Prof. Newcomb, in *Nature* for May 4, where a most excellent portrait appears in the galaxy of "Scientific Worthies," says of him, in view of his mathematical researches of the last forty years: "Newcomb must be considered, without contradiction, as one

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of the most celebrated astronomers of our time, both on account of the immensity of his work and the unity of view which makes the choice of the subjects treated by him. All is linked together in our solar system. . . . Not only has he given a great scope to the intellectual movement of his country, but he has also contributed in a very successful manner to elevate the level of the civilization of our age, enriching the domain of science with beautiful and durable conquests."

From the New York agency of Boussod, Manzi, Joyant & Cie. we receive the customary annual issue (Part I.) of *Figaro-Salon*, the illustrated folio of the current Salons, edited by Arsène Alexandre. A portrait of Paul Deschanel, President of the Deputies, is among the full-page plates. The colored print (double-size) is Benoit-Lévy's "Morning of July 14, 1789."

Among the very varied contents of the Consular Reports for May, those of most general interest are reports upon the dairy product of Canada (from which it appears that 196,703,323 pounds of cheese, valued at $17,572,763, were exported in 1898, and of butter 11,252,787, valued at $2,046,686) and upon the commerce and industry of Brazil; and information in regard to the collection of debts in several countries, including Germany and England. An article upon rubber plantations in Guatemala gives figures as to the original cost of land and preparation of the crop. These show that "one crop, after ten years, will produce double the amount expended during that time." The consul at Tuxpan, Mexico, gives an interesting description of the modes of cultivating the vanilla bean in that country.

The difference between China and Japan in foreign trade is becoming more marked each year. The returns for 1898 have just been published for each country, and are suggestive when brought into contrast. China's imports gave an increase over 1897 of about 7,000,000 Haikwan taels, due to opium, coal, raw cotton, kerosene oil, flour, and sugar, certainly necessary articles except opium. The exports decreased 4,500,000 taels, mainly in tea and silk. Japan increased its imports by more than one-fifth, or by 57,700,000 yen, owing to the partial failure of the home rice crop, and to larger imports of sugar, raw cotton, and alcohol. The exports increased only 1.5 per cent., but, on separating the raw materials from the manufactures, it is seen that the movement of raw products fell from 117,771,632 yen in 1897 to 106,197,206 yen in 1898, while that of manufactures rose from 45,363,445 yen to 59,465,098 yen. Cotton yarns, now the most important of the manufactures exported, silk goods, and straw braid, are the leading items of increase, and the movement shows no tendency to diminish in volume. As to the future of the raw materials, the *Japan Weekly Mail* says: "Tea, rice, and camphor may be set aside at once; tea, because the market for it is limited, and shows no sign of growing; rice, because the domestic demand will probably keep the quotation at such a point that profitable export will be impossible; and camphor, because, whatever Japan's produce might become under careful husbanding, it tends at present, and has for many years tended, to diminish rather than increase." Silk is being injured by the competition of the newly established filatures and originally better product of China. Whatever expectations might be based on the coal exports must be modified as the demand of the domestic factories grows, and the seams are neither large nor widely distributed. The same condition applies to copper. It would seem that Japan aims to be a great manufacturing nation, possibly drawing the raw material from China.

While the statement recently made that the cable connection between Denmark and Iceland had been determined on is not true, there is reason to believe that the consummation is not far distant. The Great Northern Telegraph Company of Copenhagen is willing to undertake the enterprise in case at least fourteen meteorological institutes in Europe and America agree to subscribe for daily weather reports. As the advantages to be gained by such information are very great, and the charges will be put at the lowest possible figure, there should be no difficulty in reaching a satisfactory agreement. The proposed cable will pass over the Faroe Islands, from which reports will also be received. It is believed that the plan will specially commend itself to countries engaged in the Icelandic fisheries, which will be made much safer by this extension of weather observations.

According to the *Berlingske Tidende* of Copenhagen, a new hospital for the use of French fishermen was opened in April on the east coast of Iceland. During the past two years, medical and surgical aid has been given to the 5,000 French fishermen who spend the fishing season, from April to October, along this coast by two hospital ships, with a physician on each. Experience, however, proved that the incessant motion of the boats interfered with the comfort even of sailors when sick or disabled. These boats will be retained, but will hereafter be used only to bring patients from different points to the building on Faskrudsfjord. The whole enterprise is under the direction of the French Government, although the hospital attendants are Danish.

April was a propitious month for German women striving after the higher education. In the Empire, obstacles in the way of the admission of women to the examinations for physicians, dentists, and pharmaceutists were removed; in Prussia, the entrance conditions for female "hearers" in the universities were simplified; and at Hanover and Stuttgart two new *Mädchengymnasien* were opened. If we add to these the slap given by the university authorities at Halle to the youngsters who tried to shut their sisters out from the clinic, we have five distinct steps in advance in a single month. Who will say that Germany is not bestirring herself?

At the first conference of Latin teachers of Vermont and adjoining States, held at Middlebury College a year ago, under the auspices of the department of Latin, a Roman chorus was presented with marked success by the class in Horace. At the second conference, May 19 and 20, 1899, the crowning feature was a Roman drama, a presentation of certain scenes in the life of Cicero centring about the conspiracy of Catiline. As in the chorus, fidelity to fact was the prime consideration in every detail of costume, scenery, and stage appointments. The scenery, by Mr. Charles Witham of New York, was of exceptional beauty; the temple of Jupiter Stator, the Forum, and the house of Quintus Cicero being given especial praise. The curtains closed on a chorus of youths and maidens singing in the Forum a hymn to Diana of Catullus. Prof. Myron R. Sanford of the Latin chair was the author of the drama, compiled largely from the texts of Cicero, Sallust, and Plutarch, ingeniously interwoven.

The ninth summer meeting of the Oxford University Extension will be held at Oxford from July 29 to August 23. Among those who have promised to take part in the meeting are Sir W. Anson, Bart.; Hon. George Brodrick, Lord Strathcona, Lord Farrer, Sir Alfred Lyall, Sir William Richmond, Canon Sanday, Professors Dicey, Jebb, York Powell, Sayce, Percy Gardner, Messrs. Arthur Sidgwick, Frederick Myers, Geoffrey Drage, M.P., Churton Collins, Estlin Carpenter, and many others. There will be lectures on the history, literature, art, science, and economics of the period 1837-1871. An outline of the programme may be had gratis of Mr. John Nolen, No. 111 South Fifteenth Street, Philadelphia; tickets and all information from J. A. R. Marriott, M.A., University of Oxford.

The Chautauqua Assembly announcements for 1899 include a number of courses in literature. Among the most notable is that to be given by Mr. Walter H. Page, editor of the *Atlantic Monthy*, whose five lectures will deal with "The Practical Aspects of Literature."

The Harvard Summer School of Theology will hold its first session from July 5 to July 21, at Cambridge, Mass., offering courses in the Old Testament, church history, and theology, with occasional evening lectures of a more general character, *e. g.*, "Dürer's Biblical Illustrations," by Prof. Francke; "The Anti-Slavery Preachers," by the Rev. J. W. Chadwick; "The Abbey of Cluny," by Prof. Norton, etc. Both sexes may attend. Inquiries may be addressed to the Rev. Robert S. Morison, at the Divinity Library.

The Marine Biological Laboratory will hold its twelfth session at Wood's Holl, Mass., beginning June 1, and the announcements show that it will be of more than usual interest and importance. Besides the courses hitherto offered, others will be given this year on cytology, physiology, and psychology. The extent of the work now carried on may be inferred from the fact that there are thirty names on the list of officers of instruction, and fifty-four on the list of lecturers. Among them are the names of two women, Prof. Clapp of Mt. Holyoke College and Prof. Cummings of Wellesley. The evening lectures on matters of general biological interest are a marked feature of interest, and the annual volume which is made up out of them presents the recent trend of biological opinion in a form as fascinating as it is accessible.

The Twelfth International Congress of Orientalists will meet at Rome on October 12, 1899. Cards of membership ($4) may be obtained from Mr. Cyrus Adler, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.

A committee has been formed for the purpose of presenting Dr. Richard Garnett, with his portrait upon his retirement from the post of Keeper of Printed Books at the British Museum. During the forty-eight years that he has held office at the Museum he has won the regard of thousands of students by his unfailing courtesy and devotion to their interests. At the same time he has made a wide reputation as a man of letters,

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and has taken an active part in promoting the efficiency of public libraries throughout the country. All who are acquainted with him and his varied work, will, it is believed, welcome an opportunity of giving some practical expression of the esteem in which they hold him. Subscriptions will be received by the Hon. Treasurer, Mr. A. H. Huth, Bolney House, Ennismore Gardens, London, S. W., or by Mr. W. C. Lane, Librarian of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. The committee desire to learn as early as possible what subscriptions they may depend upon, in order that they may be able to give a commission for the portrait without delay. The amounts subscribed will not be published, but a list of the names of the subscribers will be presented to Dr. Garnett.

The death of Eduard von Simson on May 2 at Berlin removes another of the men who took a leading part in the Revolution of 1848 and in the subsequent political evolution and consolidation of Germany. Simson was born November 10, 1810, at Königsberg, studied law and political economy, and habilitated as privat docent in 1831 in the university of his native city. Three years later he was appointed to the position of judge in the royal tribunals of Prussia, and gave up his academical career. His political activity began in 1848, when he was sent as a delegate to the Frankfort Parliament, of which he was soon chosen president. Indeed, it is a conclusive proof of his eminent ability in this direction that he always became the presiding officer of the several legislative bodies to which he belonged, such as the Prussian House of Deputies, the Parliament of the North-German Bund, and the Imperial Diet. He was the head of the deputation which offered the imperial crown to Friedrich Wilhelm IV. at Berlin, in 1849, as well as of the deputation which made the same offer with better success to Wilhelm I. at Versailles in 1870. He presided over the German Imperial Diet till 1874, when he declined a reëlection on the ground of ill health. He withdrew entirely from public life in 1891, when an hereditary order of nobility was conferred upon him by the Emperor Friedrich III.

—Perhaps the most interesting pages of the last number of the *Psychological Review* are those which fall under the head of discussions. Prof. Hyslop deals some keen blows at Prof. Münsterberg's recent utterances on the subject of psychical research; for a man who is himself so devoted an "idealist" as to believe that as subjects of will we are immortal—that, to the philosophical mind, which sees the difference between reality and psychological transformation, immortality is certain, the denial of immortality is even meaningless—it would seem as if that form of the non-materialistic which is embodied in the phenomena of mysticism would also have its attractions. But Prof. Münsterberg will have nothing of it. As Prof. Hyslop points out, the wonderful triumphs of invention and discovery in the field of science have destroyed the ordinary criteria of the limits of human knowledge, and have deprived us of our moorings, so that we are rapidly coming to think that hardly anything is impossible. Mr. Hiram M. Stanley discusses Mr. Marshall's theory of religion. Mr. Kirkpatrick brings out an interesting instance in support of his thesis that voluntary action arises not so much out of chance impulsive action which is seen to be efficacious, as upon the actual physiological development of the cells in which it has its seat. Mr. Judd advances our comprehension of certain geometrical illusions by pointing out that the eye has a tendency to follow lines, that distances seem shorter when the eye is thus allured in a certain direction, and that the over-estimation of acute angles and the under-estimation of obtuse angles is a case of actual triangulation which is exposed to error from this allurement of the eye.

—Under the title, 'Völkerpsychologisches in der Philippinenfrage,' Ferdinand Blumentritt, in the *Deutsche Rundschau* for May, throws a welcome ray of light on the real significance of the desperation with which the Filipinos are resisting a professedly benevolent conquest. The Malays of these islands, says this eminent authority, are very intelligent, and bear a striking resemblance to the Japanese. So eager for education are they that their percentage of illiterates is two-fifths that of Spain. Not only this, but they have artistic capabilities of no mean order—witness the gold and silver-smiths and wood-carvers of Manila, and the distinguished performances of such painters as F. Resurreccion Hidalgo and Don Juan Luna (a pure Ilocano), brother of the insurgent general, whose picture "Spoliarium" was crowned in Paris, and who decorated the Hall of the Spanish Senate in Madrid. In engineering, too, natural science, and literature they have gained distinction. General Luna himself was a pupil of Pasteur, and, under the pseudonym "Taga-ilog," has published stories and sketches of European life which, from their subtle irony and deftness of workmanship, deserve comparison with the work of Maupassant. In Manila the professions of law and medicine are crowded with natives.

—Under the Spanish rule, such men, however able or cultivated, felt the sting of the contempt of their rulers, whose cruel mockery sometimes denominated them "Anthropoids." No high political career was open to them. Their resentment at this assumption of white superiority deepened as travel and reading dispelled their illusions and disclosed the reverse side of the boasted white civilization. They learned, too, that wherever white men are in control, a dark skin is an insuperable barrier to equality of rights and opportunities. Consequently, however alluring the promises of American control, these leaders and their educated followers are resisting it with heroic desperation. It is not only a political control which they repel, but also the hopeless lot of the "inferior race," a maddening prospect for men of culture and ambition. In brief, the fact is, as Blumentritt says in conclusion, "dass die Herrschaft des amerikanischen Angelsachsen, der schon die Creolen als eine Art Nigger betrachtet, von den gebildeten Filipinos aller Kasten als eine *capitis deminutio maxima* angesehen werden würde." The tragic pathos of this situation must appeal to every humane American whose eyes have not been dazzled by the imperialistic vision, and who realizes the pitiful condition of the educated colored man in our own country.

—The first translation of Miss Austen's 'Northanger Abbey' into French dates from 1824; M. Félix Fénéon now supplies another under the auspices of the *Revue Blanche* Publishing Company. English readers who remember the purpose of this novel and the conditions of English sensational fiction against which it was directed in a spirit of gentle, and essentially feminine, satire, may doubt whether either of the translators fully perceived the feline *coups de patte* thus aimed by Jane Austen at more than one of her rivals, living or dead. In any case, the effect of the work in French is singular, almost disconcerting; for ironical satire, in whatever shape, is one of the least readily transferable—and consequently translatable—of literary forms; the less so when presented in definite pictures of social conditions foreign to the translator's country. Nevertheless, M. Fénéon, while taking but few liberties with the text, has produced a translation that is French in expression, if in nothing else. As might have been expected, certain peculiarities in Jane Austen's diction, admitting of no adequate reproduction, are entirely missed. In chapter xi. we read that Catherine Morland "meditated by turns on broken promises and broken arches, phaetons and false hangings, Tilneys and trap-doors." Here the translator, not content with evading the difficulty of humorous antithesis conveyed in the alliteration, offers a substitute both tame and inexact: "Elle pensait tour à tour à des promesses rompues et à des voûtes croulantes, à des phaétons et de mystérieux huis, aux Tilney et à des oubliettes." When Henry Tilney sarcastically banters Catherine (ch. xiv.) on her use of the word "nice" (then considered as slang), it will hardly be maintained that "joli" meets the situation. But slips of this nature are rare in M. Fénéon's version. So well equipped a translator might wisely turn his attention to the more carefully elaborated pictures of English life in its peaceful days, which give to Jane Austen her undisputed place in English fiction. We venture, however, charily to note that in 'Northanger Abbey' we have on this occasion detected what resembles the inaccuracy which, as a biographer tells us, long vexed the soul of the late James Spedding. Emma, it seems, ate *strawberries* in Mr. Knightley's garden "under apple-trees in blossom," and the editor of the "Instauratio Magna' relaxed his philosophical toil in truly Baconian quest of the possibility of such coincidence. But, in Jane Austen's novels, seasons are not forced by fruits alone, since Eleanor Tilney is reported to have been seen promenading the Bath Crescent, at the end of February, "in a very pretty spotted muslin."

—Prof. Alberto Magnaghi, in 1897, brought to the notice of readers of the *Rivista Geografica Italiana* an interesting map of the European world drawn in 1530 by Angellinus de Dalorco. This map has now been issued in an admirably legible photozincographic reproduction, through the generosity of its owner, Prince Tommaso Corsini of Florence, who presented it to the Third Italian Geographical Congress as an offering to the memory of Toscanelli and Vespuccius. The facsimile is accompanied by a thoroughly adequate study—a model of what a cartographic essay should be—by Prof. Magnaghi. Further examination of the inscription on the original parchment map has shown that the date should be 1525, and that the author's name should apparently be read Dalorto. The latter correction is especially interesting, in that it seems to connect the cartographer with the Genoese family of Dall' Orto or Dalorto, several of whose members took a prominent part in the establishment of Italian commercial colonies in the East, especially at Caffa. The map itself is of the

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utmost value for the study of geographical history, because it is one of the very earliest which represent a serious effort to record the actual facts as far as they were known at the centre of the mediæval world. Surprisingly few of the fantasies of the earlier cartographers appear on this map, and those which Dalorto retained serve only to emphasize the absence of more exact information. Beyond the familiar borders of the Mediterranean countries, which are very accurately laid down, the limits of the commercial trade routes can be easily traced by the relative correctness of the seacoasts and river courses. In connection with this last, it is worth noting that Dalorto's map is, perhaps, the earliest real attempt to represent the facts regarding the configuration of the interior of the various countries with the same truthfulness which the necessities of navigation had some time before demanded of cartographers in the drawing of coast lines. The information derived from the rapidly extending intercourse with the regions beyond the Straits of Dover is visibly represented here, also for the first time, perhaps, so far as can be learned from the surviving maps. The Low Countries are, of course, shown with much fulness of detail in names, etc., and the coast seems to have been well known as far as Denmark. Beyond that point, the second-hand reports of returning traders and shipmasters apparently gave Dalorto some trouble, but he succeeded fairly well in harmonizing the doubtless conflicting and disproportionate accounts of Scandinavia and the Baltic gulfs. Ireland was much better known than its larger neighbor, for even the accessible English coasts opposite Picardy and Normandy are not as thickly studded with names as the Irish coast from Belfast to Cork, and even around to Galway. Scotland, Norway, and Iceland were not to be really known until the Continental fish markets demanded supplies from the farther north.

HALE'S LOWELL.

James Russell Lowell and his Friends. By Edward Everett Hale. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

The agreeable personal qualities of Dr. Hale, his easy and familiar style, and his abundant opportunities of acquaintance with Lowell's personal circle, will secure many readers for this well-printed and well-illustrated book. On the other hand, its colloquial air will repel some readers, whose further confidence in its methods will scarcely be secured by the occasional intimation that it was partly written at railway stations (p. 63), or while actually travelling in the cars (p. 61). As a whole, it presents a combination of qualities readily recalling to memory the biographical work of the late James Parton, whose popularity in this respect was immense but rather short-lived. He, like Dr. Hale, was always readable, was ardent and undiscriminating in loyalty to his friends, and sharply criticised his opponents; but it could be said of neither of them, as was said of Edward Everett by Emerson, that "for a man who threw out so many facts he was seldom convicted of a blunder" (p. 69). The mere comparison of this book with its successive chapters as they were published in the *Outlook* will show how much it has already gained by revision; and future editions will be likely to gain yet more. It may, of course, be urged on the other side that the author writes mainly to express his own feeling about Lowell himself; yet so far as "his friends" were concerned, the range filled is a very large one, and includes a good many collateral disquisitions, sometimes leading on quite insecure ground.

It is a curious survival of youthful training that Dr. Hale, who can never quite forget the early traditions of the *Daily Advertiser*, must have his hit, even in writing of Lowell, against the early abolitionists. He says (p. 51) that Lowell's class poem had a "bitter invective against abolitionists who talked and did nothing," whereas Lowell did not at all object to them for doing nothing, since the time had not yet come when they could do anything but talk. Afterwards Dr. Hale says of Dr. Palfrey's emancipation of his slaves: "He had opposed the 'abolitionists' with all his might, with pen and with voice. But he knew how to do the duty next his hand better than some men who had talked more about theirs" (p. 60). This doing of his duty consisted in emancipating slaves which he had inherited; and inasmuch as most of the abolitionists had never inherited any, it is difficult to see how they could have set them free. All this suggests not the Dr. Hale who worked for liberty in Kansas, but rather him who once described George Thompson and Harriet Martineau as "foreign carpet-baggers," because, after coming to America, they ventured to speak their minds about the institution of slavery.

It must always be remembered, however, in justice to Dr. Hale, that it is a part of his free-and-easy method to satirize himself and his own particular friends as impulsively as he does everything else. Thus, in this volume he jeers at "namby-pamby philanthropists attendant on international conventions" (p. 251), while himself laboring to organize universal peace; and he ridicules "the madness . . . which forms a 'society' to do the work of an individual" (p. 57), as if he himself had not established more such societies than any man now living. One who spares himself so little cannot be expected to spare other reformers a great deal.

There could hardly be a more curious instance of Dr. Hale's untrustworthy way of treating historical facts than his delineation of the alleged revival of Boston bookselling by Phillips & Sampson "about the year 1843." As he says: "All of a sudden, as a wave of water might sweep over a thick, rotten ice-floe in one of Nansen's summers, a marvellous inundation swept over this decorous imbecility [of the publishers]. That is to say, two young men formed a 'publishing firm'" (p. 153). He then proceeds to tell you what enormous results these young men were accomplishing in 1852, and does not tell you that in that very year John P. Jewett & Co. were issuing 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' in Boston, of which they sold in five years nearly half a million copies—a sale such as Phillips & Sampson had never dreamed of. Moreover, he gives the full account of the launch of the *Atlantic Monthly* by Phillips & Sampson in 1857 without the slightest reference to the fact that the magazine was fully planned four years before, and its contributors engaged, by Mr. F. H. Underwood in concurrence with Jewett & Co. It was postponed, not because the Jewett house was too inert, but because it was too enterprising, having been tempted into too many risks by its own success. Undoubtedly Phillips & Sampson saved the project from destruction, although they also handed it over in a few years to still another house. But the fact that eight pages of Dr. Hale's book are devoted to the laudation of Phillips & Sampson, as the projectors of the *Atlantic*, while the name of Jewett does not appear at all, and Mr. Underwood appears only once as "our literary man," is a curious illustration of the uncertainty of fame.

A few minor errors may be pointed out. Dr. Holmes has certainly not described in print (p. 13) the school of Mr. Wells, where Lowell was fitted for college, as the school was not established till 1827, when Holmes was half-way through his Harvard course. The school which Holmes described was a more juvenile one, at Cambridgeport, which he and Margaret Fuller attended. Mr. Wells was not chiefly known by his edition of Tacitus (p. 13), but by his more elaborate edition of Cicero in twenty volumes. The Harvard College Library did not consist of "about 50,000 volumes" in Lowell's time (p. 16), but, as stated by the College Catalogue in Lowell's senior year, of 38,000. Of the "Brothers and Sisters," White, as well as Story and Lowell, had been at Mr. Wells's school (p. 70). Dr. Hale says (p. 180) that Lowell "had five young relatives who died in the service" during the civil war, whereas Lowell himself, in the privately printed edition of his "Commemoration Ode" (p. 7), mentions eight. To say that there was no exaggeration in the dialect of the 'Biglow Papers' (p. 98) is what Lowell himself would not have ventured, since he reproached himself with having begun with too much misspelling (Letters, I. 119). The definition of a proper lecture-fee—"F.A.M.E. —Fifty And My Expenses"—has been more commonly attributed to Dr. Chapin than to Starr King (p. 107). President Sparks can hardly be included among the representatives of larger views at Harvard, inasmuch as it was he who secured the abolition of the temporary elective system established in 1839-'40 (p. 129). Nathaniel P. Rogers was not the first editor of the *Anti-slavery Standard* (pp. 173, 174), nor did he ever edit it. He declined the editorship and was simply an editorial contributor. It is quite impossible to imagine Mr. Lowell as writing, "I used to know *some* about Pennsylvania Dutch," unless in reference to some antecedent here omitted (p. 272). It would have inspired in him the same emotions created by "I don't know *as*," so vividly recorded by him in one of his letters.

In conclusion, it may be said that the main merit of this work consists in its being a loving picture of Lowell in early life, viewed as he appeared to a man a few years younger, and encircled by that halo with which youth endows its elder brother's friends. The great demerit of the book is in the utter absence of all real delineation of the extremely composite and interesting man that the actual Lowell was. There are rarely two men less alike than Lowell and Longfellow, and yet most of what Dr. Hale says of the one's character would be equally applicable to the other, and sometimes much more so. When he says (p. 5), "If to this loving-kindness you add an extraordinary self-control, you have the leading characteristics of his nature as it appears to those who knew him earliest and best," you have an excellent characterization of Longfellow, but no portraiture at all of the variable and

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impetuous Lowell, "the incurable child" (p. 263)—the man who would walk the streets with tears in his eyes because the people he met did not love him, and then go home to impale Percival or Thoreau on the point of his pen. This child of a Puritan father and a Norse mother, in Dr. Hale's phrase, had a mingling of qualities of which the least visible of all was "an extraordinary self-control." Again, there is hardly a more characteristic contradiction in this book than where the author says of his subject (p. 274), "To the very end of his life, his conversation and his daily walk, indeed, were swayed by the extreme tenderness for the feelings of others which his sister noticed when he was a little boy. He would not give pain if he could help it." Then follows, on the opposite page, a description of the "fun" of a dinner party at which Lowell "tortured" a young man for pronouncing the word "clerk" in the English way as if it rhymed with "lark." "Lowell just pounced upon him as an eagle might pounce upon a lark, to ask why he did so" (p. 275); regarding it as an English affectation. And yet this youth's only offence appears to have been in pronouncing the word precisely as some of Lowell's own classmates did, who had been very little in England; as, for instance, the late Judge Devens, who, as Attorney-General to President Hayes, was largely influential in sending Lowell himself to London. The man who "would take pleasure in snubbing" (p. 275) could hardly have been the man who "would not give pain if he could help it." The two qualities of temperament were easily combined in the actual Lowell, who was, as he once said of himself, "curiously compounded of two utterly distinct characters"; but they are not reconcilable in the man of calm and inexorable self-control whom Dr. Hale proclaims to us. On the whole, the actual Lowell was the more interesting, since, in the wise Goethe's phrase, it is a man's inconsistencies which are apt to make him attractive.

MORE FICTION.

Roden's Corner. By Henry Seton Merriman. Harpers.

"If I Were a Man": The Story of a New-Southerner. By Harrison Robertson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Conjure Woman. By Charles W. Chesnutt. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Gospel Writ in Steel: A Story of the American Civil War. By Arthur Paterson. D. Appleton & Co.

The Stolen Story, and Other Newspaper Stories. By Jesse Lynch Williams. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. Pp. 291.

The Short-Line War. By Merwin-Webster. Macmillan Co.

Men's Tragedies. By R. V. Risley. Macmillan Co.

Nothing is safer or apparently more profitable than to satirize Society; the sharpest barbs seem only to excite an agreeable titillation in that thick-skinned animal. Mr. Merriman's cleverness, although directed against what might be conceded a vulnerable spot, will win him no enemies. When Society dabbles in Charity, and both wear capitals, the result is fair game for anybody. Roden's Corner was in Malgamite, a product which comes to have a convincing reality for the reader, and the book itself is a pleasantly pungent setting forth of what might happen in industrial circles if philanthropy were to lay a blundering finger on the delicately poised scales of supply and demand. But philanthropy, as practised by Lord Ferriby, is already outdated—its flabbiness cowers before sociology, severe and scientific; and while Joan, with her Nuxine tabloids of disinfectant, of which it was fashionable in her world to smell, her Nuxine dentifrice and Nuxine cigar-holder for the sanitation of her lover, might claim a place under either régime, Lord Ferriby might as fairly be said to represent neither. The Hooley revelations have evidently complicated his character. A curious variant is effected by the manner of his taking off—dropping dead at the moment of his exposure—a climax for which the easy composure of his hypocrisy has not at all prepared one. The same inconsequence is exhibited in the career of the heavy villain, Von Holzen. This patient plotter of a lifetime, the beguiler of others to their undoing without criminally complicating himself, suddenly takes to the crudest stabbings and smotherings. Flesh-and-blood realities are not, however, to be looked for in the book; the manipulation is too evident. The puppets are taken to pieces, explained and commented on by the showman himself, who utters in his own person most of the good things. One is persistently interested in the showman—one does not tire of his neat strokes; but such an atmosphere is fatal to illusion.

"If I were a man," was the challenge flung by a girl to the lover she was not ready to wed. It roused him from inglorious ease and sent him into political life. Then follows the struggle of the man against the machine, the individual thinker against the party boss. The fearful power of these two engines of oppression is well brought out in the story of the Senatorial contest, a fierce effort to make Spurlock cast his vote for the unprincipled party candidate and so break the legislative deadlock. It is a situation of genuine heroism, for which, it is well to remind ourselves, modern civic life affords opportunities. As a study in practical politics, written with abundant dash and revealing shrewd insight into conditions which prevail, not in Kentucky alone, the book is good to read. There is nothing rosily optimistic in it all. Spurlock loses his office, loses his fortune in an attempt to found an independent newspaper, and the cause he champions goes down with a crash. But the note of despair is never struck; at the end the hero is full of fight, and one is left with the feeling that if, either in the New South or the New North, such ideals obtain, the republic will be justified of her children.

The half-dozen tales of Aun' Peggy, the "cunjuh 'oman," told by an old plantation darky, are delightfully frank in their supernaturalism and lose in effectiveness only by the deep policy imputed to their relater. That the marvellous tale of the goophered grape-vine was concocted by Uncle Julius only to secure his own enjoyment of the vineyard, is a discovery which calls his own credulity in question. The thrill of the "Gray Wolf's Ha'nt" evaporates on finding the legend to be but the guardian of Uncle Julius's bee-tree. But in the current of the stories one has no thought of such a rude jar against the actual. The conjure woman "wuks" her roots, and Po' Sandy becomes a tree, Primus turns into a white mule, and Hot Foot Hannibal, by the agency of a doll-baby with red-pepper feet, is brought low. Uncle Julius's scepticism cannot rob one of the belief that this was the real religion of the old plantation; the goopher "mixtry," not the overseer's lash, the dreaded power.

Were it not for the frankness of the subtitle, it would seem almost indiscreet in the reviewer to reveal the fact that the 'Gospel Writ in Steel' harks back to the remote period of the civil war, so exactly does the title indicate a description of present military undertakings. The book is, in fact, a reversion to a type popular in the early seventies. Less apropos at the present time is the relation, among other improbabilities, of a horrid Confederate plot to blow up three hundred Yankee prisoners in the event of Sherman's attempt to rescue them. The Wisconsin hero, after surprising exploits, receives his reward in this world (truly a comfortable gospel), and Lincoln tells a story or two, without which no book of the sort would be complete; but there is little to reconcile one to the spoiling of a title for the Filipino novelist.

Young men with an ambition to enter life through the doorway of a newspaper office will do well to read Mr. Williams's little volume of newspaper stories. While the author treats his subject sympathetically, as becomes an ex-reporter, and is apparently ready to accept unreservedly the current opinion of our enterprising journals as to what constitutes "legitimate news," he is too conscientious a workman to paint his unlovely pictures in any but their true colors. "Billy" Woods, the hero of the two principal stories in the volume, represents the consummation of most newspaper virtues. Drunkenness is his one failing, and when this unfortunate weakness prevents him from publishing information which he has wheedled out of an ingenuous girl at the cost of a series of lies, in order to ruin her father's business standing and make good "copy" for his own paper, the moral of it all is that drink is an evil which interferes dreadfully with one's duties; which is, of course, quite true.

Not that Mr. Williams is a supporter of yellow journalism. He would bar the prurient as well as the prudish from the columns of an ideal American paper, but he would by no means disappoint the pleasant curiosity of the public by respecting the claim of a few private persons to the exclusive possession of private news. Mr. Williams sets forth the reporter as he is, friendly, versatile, proud of his paper, and of himself as its representative, entirely unscrupulous, with space-rates and a *beat* as the summit of his ambition. His life is a hard one, and he grows old in middle age. His ambition weakens and his health declines. Even murder assignments cannot keep him young.

As a story, the tale which gives its name to the volume is by far the best in the collection. The absent-mindedness of a veteran reporter is made the basis of a rather unlikely incident, but the story becomes plausible as Mr. Williams surrounds it with realistic detail, and one follows the adventure to the end with lively interest. But, unfortunately, among the stories that follow are several so slight as to suggest the padding in a Monday morning's paper that has slipped by a city editor careless of space bills. The background of the stories—newspaperdom—is given with capital effect, which is heightened by the alert, reporter-like style of the descriptions. Mr. Williams evidently thinks

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the office of a daily paper a great training-school for life; but his measure for life is the unit of quantity.

Mr. Merwin-Webster founds a romance upon the fight for the possession of a branch road connecting two great trunk lines. The opposing forces leave nothing untried to win their ends. They first use strategy, then bribery, then violence, and the difficulty culminates in a pitched battle. There is a good story here, but unfortunately the author does not perceive that the real possibilities of his subject lie in fitting his romance squarely within its realistic frame. The middle of the volume is not past before he transgresses all legitimate bounds, and dashes off on a windy career straight towards the impossible. One other error he makes. Anxious not to frighten the reader by unmitigated "business," he makes a frank concession to the conventional taste of the public, and drags in a love episode, which graces the story as naturally as the pretty heroine might her father's railroad office. Mr. Merwin-Webster is familiar with the details of railroading, and his brisk style catches the attention and holds it. His romance will shorten a journey or a dull evening, but it scarcely deserves a permanent place on the bookshelf.

Under the rather lurid title of 'Men's Tragedies' are grouped nine "fictional essays," as the author chooses to call them. Cast in the mould of short stories, their real aim is to delineate men at moments of intensest excitement. In order to make the plot subordinate to the intellectual character of the story, the tragedies all bear a certain external resemblance. Their heroes are all Germans, as befits their psychological tendencies. They are generally men of mature age, and to each comes the particular catastrophe most sure to break the barriers of his moral being and unloose his wildest passions. Of their nature, these stories are quite divorced from life. They are psychological orgies in which the author revels in the dissection of brutal emotion. 'Man is not as you see him, he would argue; he must be hurt, wronged, stung where the soul is most sensitive, then you shall know him. The years that have gone before count for nothing; the moment of despair for everything. In that instant all that was hid is brought to light—the man is as he is. If this thesis be true, these neurotic tragedies do not help one to believe it. One is everywhere sensible of the author's hypothesis, and the surcharged emotion of description leaves one cold. The passion is not human, but the calculated effect of what is meant to be art. This struggle for effect is never absent; it is manifest in the repetition of selected phrases, the frequent tableaux, the measured pause before each climax. The tragedies are terrible, yet they do not terrify.

CESARESCO'S CAVOUR.

Cavour. By the Countess Evelyn Martinengo Cesaresco. [Foreign Statesmen Series.] Macmillan. Pp. 222.

Countess Cesaresco's sketch is extraordinarily good. Into 220 not large pages she has distilled the essence of all that has been printed about Cavour. The reader who comes to her epitome without previous acquaintance with the subject, will find in it a lucid and unfailingly interesting story of a statesman whose achievements do not grow dim through the lapse of years; other readers will wonder, in proportion as they are familiar with the field, how the author could pack so much in so small a space. She is the first person to write in English the biography of the man whose genius and personality will fill, along with those of Lincoln and Bismarck, the political annals of the last half of our century.

Although Cavour still lacks an exhaustive biography, his life has already been the subject of several important short works. Nothing better of its kind could be desired than the personal recollections, a fine blending of character analysis and reminiscence, which his friend William de La Rive published in 1862. Fifteen years later Mazade, one of the acutest French political writers of his generation, made a study of Cavour that cannot soon be outworn. A little earlier, Treitschke issued his monograph, which has been much overpraised; for Treitschke could not refrain from using Cavour's career as a text from which to preach how much better Prussians do everything than any one else does anything. Massari's biography, the standard in Italian, is rather commonplace, but it possesses the value which attaches to the opinions and reminiscences of a participant in many of the events he describes. More important than all these put together is the substance of the introductions with which Senator Chiala prefaced the six volumes of Cavour's letters edited by him. That work will remain a thesaurus of information to which students will go back, as to the fountain-head, so long as Cavour and the unification of Italy are remembered; but the desultory plan on which those introductions were written—four volumes being added to the original two, as new material turned up—leaves them without that artistic symmetry which every biography should possess.

Countess Cesaresco's epitome sums up, as we have said, all this material, in a small volume in which form and substance are alike excellent. Her previous books, 'Italian Characters' and 'The Liberation of Italy,' had many merits, but they did not reveal that power to grasp and describe a whole period which is here so remarkable. Nor is this power sufficient alone to insure success. No one can doubt that the late E. A. Freeman had mastered the Norman Conquest, yet when he came to write the Life of William the Conqueror on a small scale, he produced one of the most unreadable books by an historian of ability which we have ever struggled with. For Countess Cesaresco, condensation does not mean desiccation. She has the gift of making the personages she describes living realities; without it, erudition may petrify, but cannot vitalize. From first to last, she never allows you to feel that you are dealing with abstractions, principles, theories, instead of with human beings. Her dramatis personæ have flesh and blood, reason, volition, passions, and are not—as is so often the case in modern scientific histories—mere corks or pickerel-weed to be floated hither and yon by the stream of tendency. Of Cavour himself she gives a full-length portrait in miniature, but it is in her rapid sketches of secondary personages that she shows her capacity for catching a likeness in a few lines. Take Massimo d'Azeglio, for instance; he actually appears on the scene very seldom, but his essential traits have been so vividly defined from the first that his probable conduct throughout the course of the drama is foreshadowed. Countess Cesaresco's interpretation of more puzzling characters is worthy of attention. Thus, she explains Napoleon III.'s fast-and-loose policy, not on the assumption that he was deep and astute, but that he was fundamentally irresolute, an ignoble Hamlet; thereby reducing him to a common level, from the bad preëminence of a first-class villain to which Kinglake and others have raised him.

In no part of her treatment of personalities is she more skilful than when she deals with the relations of Cavour and Victor Emanuel. To imagine that the monarch was a mere figurehead, is wholly to misunderstand the share which Victor Emanuel took in redeeming Italy. He felt himself every inch a king, and never consented to be merely a silent partner in the great enterprise which his minister directed. More than once, notably after Solferino, his rugged common sense prevented Cavour's outburst of fury from damaging the cause they were both working for. No doubt it galled so haughty a king even to seem to be under the tutelage of a minister who never played the courtier; but Victor Emanuel regarded this as a sacrifice required of his patriotism. The magnitude of that sacrifice can be measured only when the facts hinted at by Countess Cesaresco on p. 125 are understood. About 1857, the King seemed determined to marry his mistress, Rosina Vercellani. Cavour, believing that such a marriage at that juncture would be not only a public scandal in Italy, but also the cause of alienating foreign goodwill, especially that of England, determined at all hazards to prevent it. Accordingly, he employed detectives to convince Victor Emanuel that the woman was not faithful to him. The King raged, and swore that were he not King he would challenge Cavour to a duel; there was a ministerial crisis, but Cavour remained in the premiership, and Victor Emanuel did not marry Rosina until seven years after Cavour's death. A king less patriotic would never have suffered the minister to remain who had dared so personal an affront against him.

Countess Cesaresco has given throughout what we believe to be the true description of Cavour's position with the King—a sufficient test of her insight into character. What is, perhaps, a higher achievement, she neither extenuates nor moralizes. As every one knows, there were passages in Cavour's diplomacy which can be defended only when we admit that the end justifies the means. Great as is her admiration for her hero, she wisely refrains from writing his apology; she states the facts and leaves the reader to pronounce judgment. This is, after all, the best course. Since moral standards, both public and private, vary from age to age, the aim of a biographer should be to provide the testimony by which each age can frame its own verdict. Until a few months ago, every American was taught to execrate the British red-coats who tried, at Concord and Bunker Hill, to deprive our ancestors of their liberty; now that the forces of the United States are engaged in depriving of liberty ten million Filipinos, who have been bought without their consent at two dollars apiece by the President, we must evidently revise our opinion of both George III. and our ancestors. To meddle as little as possible with praise or blame, therefore, is the historian's prudence. Accordingly, Countess Cesaresco does not delay over the ethics of

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such debatable matters as Cavour's coalition with Rattazzi, or his invasion of the Marches in 1860, or his disingenuous overtures to Francis II. of Naples. She states each position clearly, hints at the dilemma involved, and passes on.

One does not expect novel disclosures in so brief a work; nevertheless, we could point out much that appears here for the first time—at least, in English; but the real originality of the book lies in the excellence with which it presents all the material at hand. We must not omit to say, however, that although Countess Cesaresco writes from the standpoint of the Cavourians, who represented the resultant of the antagonistic forces that were working to control Italy, she has too hearty a sympathy for Garibaldi and many of the Republicans to be narrowly partisan. Her candid account of Cavour's relations with the Church might be read without irritation in the Vatican; and she certainly expresses an intelligent admiration for Mazzini. Napoleon III.'s admirers, if any still survive, might complain that she does him scant justice, but do not the facts warrant her conclusions? Palmerston, on the other hand, she draws in his ideal rôle of antagonist of Continental despots. In certain respects, her running exposition of the influence of English party politics on Italy's struggle for independence is among her most valuable contributions. More than once, we judge from internal evidence, she has had access to the private records of Sir James Hudson, the British Minister at Turin, than whom no other Englishman was more trusted by or helpful to Cavour. Like her countrywomen, Jessie White Mario and Linda White Villari, Countess Cesaresco has been placed in an exceptionally favorable position for interpreting Italian affairs in terms easily understood by English readers; and this fact explains why her opinions on the relations of the two countries have unusual weight.

At a few points only have we had cause to question, not her accuracy, but her emphasis. Would a stranger get from her account of Cavour's "apprenticeship" an adequate idea of his wonderful versatility? By the time he entered public life he had been an agriculturist on a large scale, a manufacturer, a banker—in other words, he had had practical training which made him invulnerable when he came to discuss finances in Parliament. But this was not all. He passed from months of seclusion among his Leri rice-fields to the salons and clubs of Paris, mixing in turn with equal ease with the literary, the political, the fashionable, and the fast sets; drawing from each that knowledge of human nature and of individuals which he afterwards applied for the redemption of Italy. We doubt whether his love affair had quite as much influence on his development as is implied in Countess Cesaresco's statement, "It found him in despair, and it left him self-reliant and matured." His infatuation for the Incognita seems to have culminated before their reunion at Turin. Cavour, by the way, was "exiled" to the fortress of Bard six weeks before Charles Albert came to the throne, a fact which should absolve the King from direct responsibility in an episode which Cavour looked back upon as odious.

Two other matters concerning Cavour's public acts may also be mentioned. First, the best evidence shows that he gave the Garibaldians more aid while fitting out their Sicilian expedition than one might gather from Countess Cesaresco's report; and, secondly, she seems to underrate the risk to which Cavour's policy was constantly exposed through Mazzinian conspiracies. Cavour did not fail to appreciate Mazzini, but he recognized that Mazzini could not be tolerated if Italy was to be redeemed on a monarchical basis. The great agitator, from this standpoint, could do little good; he might do irremediable harm.

But to pursue such considerations further would give a false idea of the book, which is neither controversial nor dull. Countess Cesaresco has *esprit*, a quality rarely found outside of France. In her language she is swift, terse, and direct; in her thought, clear and judicious. She has to tell the most romantic story which European politics in this century can furnish, and she tells it with the art of a born story-teller. She has made her biography what every biography ought to be—as readable as fiction. How rare a feat this is those will realize who have noted, not without misgiving, the tendency to set up the bulging theses of candidates for the degree of Ph.D. as the standard, in style and form, for historical composition. We count it an important thing that Cavour's biography should thus be set forth so that it may be widely read. This is a time of reaction, similar to that in which Europe was plunged after the fall of Napoleon. Germany and Bismarck have been the great reactionaries lately as Austria and Metternich were then. But Cavour stands out with Lincoln as the very incarnation of liberty—which was the ideal of the last generation—and the story of his genius and achievements cannot be too often told.

We regret that the publishers do not provide an index to the volumes of this series. Since foot-notes also are excluded, it would be well to insert in the text the dates of important events.

The Philippines, and Roundabout. By Capt. G. J. Younghusband. Macmillan.

This well-known English officer has a good deal to say on the burning question of the hour. In the opening chapters he sees to it that the islands are properly discovered and occupied by Spain; he speaks of their capture by the British, of their cession again to Spain, and then, with a jump to the present day, touches upon the revolt of '96 which brought Aguinaldo into sudden prominence. He puts the causes of the revolt down to (1) the habitual extortion practised by the Spanish officials, (2) excessive and unequal taxation, and (3) extortion and interference in the affairs of state by the priests. His short accounts of the systems of pocket-lining adopted by the Governor-Generals, and of the monstrous iniquity of the priests of the Philippines, embody facts now pretty familiar, but do not concern us so much as the later portions of the book, in which he speaks from actual experience rather than from information culled out of John Foreman's writings.

After Capt. Younghusband has helped us along through the attempts of the poorly fed Spanish troops, led by over-fed commanders, to put down the revolt, ending in failure, and the subsequent buying off of the rebels for $800,000 by Primo de Rivera, who is supposed to have put an equal sum into his own pocket, we come to the battle of Manila Bay, the capture of Manila itself by our land forces, and the setting up of a native government by Aguinaldo. At this point the reader is suddenly brought up with a turn on finding that the author has not yet reached the Philippines, but is doing his best to get there, in a breezy chapter which describes the voyage to Manila from Singapore via Iloilo. This seems to be the natural beginning of the book, and what has gone before a rather lengthy historical preface.

In a chapter on the Manila of to-day is a really clever description of this Eastern metropolis in the hands of our troops, most of whom had come to the tropics for the first time. Capt. Younghusband, being an Englishman, dwells on the lack of bathing facilities in Manila, and regards the "lick and a promise" method adopted by the Spaniards as a poor substitute for the "tub." He finds native hotels filthy, the drainage everywhere abominable, and native servants worse than useless. "American newspapers recently started," he adds, "have a very good service of foreign telegrams, and contain many useful and instructive articles on local and American topics." The advertisements in some of them are as remarkable as amusing. "Holy Gee!" exclaims one new organ, "200 new subscribers in one hour. Walk in, boys; beer ain't in it with newspapers." From which we are to judge that the present prosperity in the saloon business is the standard of success that all are striving after.

Coming to Aguinaldo, the author speaks of him as a man who has, "in the face of every disadvantage, and at the early age of twenty-nine, placed himself in the ranks of great and acknowledged leaders of popular risings which, when unsuccessful, are stigmatized as rebellions, but which, when successful, bear the honored name of revolutions." In discussing the capture of Manila he says that our troops were not such as would have been "fit," under the rapid conditions of modern warfare, to meet an army highly organized and highly trained and ready to take the initiative at a moment's notice. Of the 21,000 men . . . 18,000 were in training, tactical efficiency, and shooting power, . . . according to a European standard, raw or almost raw recruits." Speaking more personally, "the American soldier," says Capt. Younghusband, "as seen at Manila, must not be taken seriously. . . . They are men in most cases who have had no connection in the past with soldiering, and have no intention of having any future connection with the profession. . . . The greatest difficulty prevails in inducing these free lances to wear any clothes, . . . and nine-tenths of the men are to be seen . . . dining at hotels and restaurants in their shirt-sleeves"—truly, a most horrifying spectacle to the Britisher, who is as punctilious about his evening dress in the tropics as in the Arctic Circle. Physically, however, he says, "the American soldier as seen at Manila yields the palm to no one. . . . Taken all around, a more powerful and hardy set than are now to be found in a British line regiment."

The pathetic story of the Philippine hero Rizal, who was tried and shot for treason, is given at length in chapter xi., and right after it, in peculiar contrast, comes a discussion of the merits of the Manila cigar, which the author considers to be most excellent and worthy of all acceptance in this country. Perhaps the most noteworthy chapter is that which discusses the future of the Philippines.

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France, Germany, Russia, and England, the author contends, are the Powers most interested in the Eastern question. France is probably not so seriously interested, however, as the other three, and perhaps does not object to the entrance of America on the scene, except that, behind the veil of America's protectorate, lies an advantage to Great Britain. Capt. Younghusband believes Germany would have liked to annex the Philippines, but he thinks Russia was not interested, except in raising a mild protest against any such change of status as might directly or indirectly strengthen the British power in the East. Japan, he adds, is friendly to both England and America, and probably does not object to America's coming into the Pacific. "Army officers at the seat of war," continues our author, "appear to be almost unanimous in deprecating the annexation of the Philippines on military grounds, while the naval opinion seems to be in favor of it on the ground that increasing commerce in Eastern Asia needs the fostering influence which the display of power in any quarter is supposed to bring."

"It may perhaps . . . be prophesied that when the cold fit which will in due course follow the warmth of the present enthusiasm, falls on the nation, America will discover the true parting of the ways was not in the actual act of annexation, but in having allowed Admiral Dewey to do more than defeat the Spanish fleet and exact a heavy indemnity from the city before sailing away, thus leaving the Philippine problem for the Spaniards and their friends to solve. The new masters of the islands have, in fact, been faced by two separate and distinct problems, the one connected with the external bearings of annexation and the other with the internal. The former problem has . . . been settled, but the latter still faces the American authorities, and will require the most careful handling, bound up as it indissolubly is with the attitude of the Philippine Islanders towards the new masters of their territory. . . . To an observer on the spot it was apparent that not only were the authorities in the distance hardly alive to the complication which existed, but those in actual touch with them took . . . a very sanguine view of the situation."

In regard to the "rebellion," Capt. Younghusband believes that if Aguinaldo could somehow be disposed of, the rebel army would melt away and the opposition collapse. He believes Aguinaldo has his price, as he had once before, but doubts "whether the Americans will care to pay it." Concluding his chapter on the future of the Philippines, the author remarks that prophecies are dangerous, but he foresees that, if the accounts are called in within ten years, the experiment of taking the Philippines will in all probability be found to have been a very costly one. "Colonial enterprises," he adds, "often take generations and sometimes centuries to mature into valuable assets." If a reaction in popular feeling should occur, it would then be a question of disposing of the islands to the best advantage, and England might have seriously to consider whether it would be advisable for her to work to the acquirement by purchase or exchange of this eastern archipelago. Finally, Capt. Younghusband believes that the exercise of any other than a despotic or semi-despotic government in the Philippines would not be subservient to the general welfare of the people, and thinks we might take lessons from the Dutch in Java, however much the idea of forced labor and government monopolies would be repugnant to Americans.

The reader's interest in the book will probably end with the chapters on the Philippines, although there is one on the French province of Saigon, and another on Java. There are seventeen illustrations and a map.

The Alcestis of Euripides. By Herman Wadsworth Hayley, Ph.D. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1898.

This is a very solid piece of work, and, in its way, a unique example of American scholarship. Prof. Earle's "Alcestis" contained much original labor and many valuable suggestions; but Dr. Hayley's is the first mainly critical edition of a Greek play that has appeared in this country. The reason of this is obvious enough: critical editions must be finally based on manuscripts, and we have few if any important manuscripts of the classics in our libraries. Nor is it likely that we shall acquire any except waifs from the flotsam and jetsam of Egyptian papyri and kindred sources. Hence the compiler of a critical text works by preference in the great European libraries, though the photographic facsimile is a valuable aid when accessible. There is, besides, a real pleasure in tackling an entirely new bit of Menander or of Hypereides, or in bringing within our ken the new planet of a Herondas or a Bacchylides; but the appalling task of threshing out once more the twenty times threshed readings and questions of an "Alcestis" requires a stout heart and head for the undertaking.

This is what Dr. Hayley has done. He has provided a satisfactory apparatus, he offers a selection from four thousand readings or emendations, and he has endeavored, as he says, "to bring Monk up to date," by incorporating what is valuable in the labors of Nauck, Kirchhoff, and Prinz, and the discussions of scores of special dissertations. He asks modestly for the lenient consideration due to the tyro; but there is nothing immature or amateurish about his work. It shows a sound and independent judgment, based on adequate learning and a nice literary instinct. As samples of his scholarship, acumen, and independence we can refer only to such notes as those on lines 57, 132, 173, 261, 291, 520, 879 and 880, and 1050. Dr. Hayley follows the late Prof. F. D. Allen in the belief that the curious dialogue between *Apollo* and *Thanatos*, which offers so many puzzles and contradictions with the body of the play, is a later insertion not written by Euripides; or, possibly, as our editor suggests, foisted in by the poet himself, together with the passages in which *Heracles* appears, in order to dish up hastily the fragments of a tragedy, and serve them up as a tragi-comedy in place of the regular satyric drama. No modern reader—least of all an Englishman or American—can reconcile himself to the sorry figure cut by the snivelling hero *Admetus*, as he accepts the sacrifice of his wife. Browning throws a modern light on his interpretation of this and also on the character of *Heracles*. Hayley hits the mark more nearly when he says,

"that *Admetus* cuts a contemptible figure, it would be vain to deny; but we must not forget that (in spite of some brilliant exceptions) the Greek sense of personal honor and personal responsibility was less keen than that of modern people. What person ever read the story of the typical hero Odysseus without partly despising 'the man of many wiles'? Macaulay has pointed out that an Italian audience of Machiavelli's day would have felt more sympathy for *Iago* than for *Othello*. I will not say that an Athenian audience of the time of Euripides would have been in full sympathy with *Admetus;* but it would certainly have felt less repugnance for him than modern readers necessarily feel."

An observation so illuminating is enough to show that Dr. Hayley has penetrated the world of ancient Greek thought and life. He shows, besides, the literary sense and feeling that are needed to inform and guide the mass of learning which must be steered carefully through any critical edition of a poet. The rigid grammarian tends to give us, instead of the breathing *Alcestis*, that frigid form wrought by the cunning hand of artificers with which her husband proposes to console his longings and regrets; the flowers of poesy when restored and emended by the pedant become waxen and artificial. Euripides must mind his p's and q's and his τε . . . . . τε; he must commit no anachronism; he must erect a mound over his heroine because a tombstone cannot be ready at a few hours' notice. As to this habit of judging things, our editor well remarks, apropos of a reading in line 197: "This constant effort to plane away all that seemed irregular and reduce everything to one 'dead level' of monotony, was one of the worst failings of the Byzantine scholars, as it is of some modern critics"; and again:

"Nauck would read τετραπτόλει, as the tragedians do not elsewhere use τετραρχία, and the mention of a τετραρχία in Thessaly in the heroic age is an anachronism. But I suspect Euripides did not think of this point. Does not Shakespeare make *Hector* quote Aristotle? It looks as if the use of the word 'tetrachy' for a political division of a country originated in Thessaly, and, if so, Euripides is probably using the technical Thessalian word."

In the coming century, perhaps, the spirits of the great departed may turn the tables on their redactors and critics; and we may have authenticated editions of the classics issued with the coöperation of learned "mediums," with no various readings and no conjectures. Then will ensue confusion of face, and many amusing and delightful revelations. We shall know the answer to such conundrums as "the third day of the month" (line 321), and the "heaven-high noose" (230). Meantime, Dr. Hayley's emendations in these passages are as good as any recorded. His work will furnish a very convenient manual for the use of special students in the so-called seminaria; and indeed a useful introduction for any student of intelligence to the methods and the fascinating subject of textual criticism. The value of the book is enhanced by Dr. James M. Paton's thorough dissertation on the Myth of Alcestis in Ancient Art.

The Letters of Thomas Carlyle to his Youngest Sister. Edited by C. T. Copeland. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

"The world awakens in me either piety or else despair," said Carlyle. From the sombre *journal intime* in Froude's 'Life' we all know too well Carlyle's black moods of despair, when the malady of being, added to the tortures of indigestion, left him only the exhilarating hope of "getting honorably out of this heart-breaking affair pitied by the Eternal Powers." From the present volume it appears that, during these long intervals of genuine night, at least in his home letters to his Scotch kindred, Carlyle exercised the gentle art of *savoir taire*. His brothers and sisters on their barren farms were working for their daily oatmeal and bacon as only the Scotch peasant can work, and, in his comfortable house and improv-

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ing circumstances in Chelsea, Carlyle must have perceived the irony of recounting his dyspeptic troubles to the peasants of Scotsbrig. Hence it is that the tone of these letters, especially of those addressed to his mother, is often almost optimistic, though the partition between the phases of grim serenity and grim despair is usually thin enough. His letters to his mother and sisters are necessarily those of a man who is leading a separate moral and social existence. In 1842 he writes to the former: "To myself my poverty is really quite a suitable, almost comfortable arrangement. . . . I am perhaps among the freest men in the British Empire at this moment. . . . Truly we have been mercifully dealt with, and much that looked like evil has turned out to be good" (p. 121). Writing to his sister in Manchester—"that huge den of reek and cotton-fuz"—he exhorts her to "particularly endeavor to keep a *good heart* and avoid all moping and musing, whatever takes away from cheerfulness. Sunshine in the inside of one is even more important than sunshine without" (p. 67).

The letters here collected were for the most part addressed to Janet Carlyle Haming, Carlyle's youngest sister, who emigrated to Canada in 1851, and died there in 1897. This is the sister whom Emerson visited at Hamilton in 1865: "Mr. Emerson placed her in a chair near the window, so that he might the more readily examine her features, and, looking into her eyes, exclaimed, 'And so this is Carlyle's little sister!'" Mr. Copeland reproduces her portrait at the age of eighty-two, and points out that Froude confused her with an older sister, Jean. A few letters from other members of the Carlyle family, including Carlyle's mother, are included; they range in date from 1832 to 1878, and so form a series almost continuous with those published in Professor Norton's volume, 'Early Letters of Thomas Carlyle' (1814-1826), which was published in 1886.

Jeffrey once complained that Carlyle was "so dreadfully in earnest," a remark which gives point to the following: "I spent a forenoon with Jeffrey, who is very thin and fretful, I think. . . . Poor Jeffrey! he does not make a nice old man; he has too little real seriousness in him for that" (p. 158). There are no revelations in these homely letters, but Carlyle's admirers will value them for the pleasing light they throw on the character of one who, for all his uncomfortable characteristics, was consistently, in Disraeli's phrase, "on the side of the angels." Mr. Copeland's introductory essay on Carlyle as a letter-writer is interesting; the illustrations of Ecclefechan, of the house in Cheyne Row, and of the Carlyles themselves add much to the attractiveness of the book. There is a pathetic contrast, for one who should compare them, between the portrait of Jane Welsh Carlyle (1826), which forms the frontispiece of Professor Norton's volume, and that reproduced by Mr. Copeland from a "Talbottype" taken in 1851.

The History of Yiddish Literature in the Nineteenth Century. By Leo Wiener, Instructor in the Slavic Languages at Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Mr. Wiener has performed a useful task in enlightening the English-speaking world as to the history and significance of "Yiddish Literature." Hitherto scholars have turned with disdain from that Judeo-German dialect, written almost exclusively in Hebrew characters, which is the only language of millions of Jews in Russia, Galicia, and Rumania. Indeed, the very existence of such a literature, in the proper sense of the word, has been unsuspected by literary historians, those of the Jewish faith—with rare exceptions—included. Mr. Wiener has endeavored to pierce the dense cloud of ignorance and prejudice which has hitherto enveloped this subject, and he has brought to its elucidation a vast fund of curious, and in many ways interesting, information. He has ransacked the libraries and bookstores of Oxford, London, Amsterdam, Berlin, Jassy, Lemberg, Cracow, Warsaw, Kiev, Odessa, and especially St. Petersburg, where the assistant librarian of the Imperial Library, Prof. Harkavy, presented him with one thousand Judeo-German volumes out of his own private library. Mr. Wiener estimates the number of Judeo-German works published in this century at from 4,000 to 5,000 volumes, and he succeeds in impressing his readers with the intrinsic value of not a few of the more recent contributions to this literature.

The Judeo-German dialect, or at least its perpetuation through centuries, is clearly the outcome of that intolerance which has pursued the Jews in so many lands. Wherever they were free to mingle with citizens of another faith and to share in their pursuits, they contributed to the literature of their country, as witness Spain before the expulsion of the Jews. Judeo-German literature may be said to date from the beginning of the sixteenth century, when a large number of Jews emigrated from the region of the Middle Rhine to Bohemia, Poland, and Russia. They were, and they and their descendants remained, German in their language and mode of life, having little in common with the Slavic-speaking Jews who had preceded them in these countries. Their first printed books dealt with the folk-lore of the German fatherland, and it was only later that the Rabbis prompted the publication of specifically Jewish legends and ethical treatises. The Jews who had remained in Germany, shut up in their ghettos and excluded from any share in the intellectual activity of their country, had to look to Slavic lands for their literary sustenance, and thus Judeo-German literature was introduced into Germany itself.

With the advent of Mendelssohn began a new era in the history of German Judaism. It was the object of his reform to free the Jewish religion from the traditions of superstitious ages, and to bring the Jews back to the realities of modern life. Through his influence the Judeo-German dialect was discarded for pure German; but while the German Jews thenceforth took their place in the literary life of Germany, the Jews in the Slavic countries and elsewhere became completely estranged from them in language. Comparatively untouched, as a mass, by Polish, Russian, or Ruman influences, on the one hand, and inaccessible, on the other, to the Mendelssohnian reform, the Jews in Galicia, Russia, and the Danubian principalities were thrown back on their Judeo-German; and this dialect, of which the Lithuanian variety of speech is closest to pure German, forms the body of what is known as "Yiddish Literature."

Mr. Wiener sums up the main characteristics of Judeo-German as follows:

"Its vocalism has undergone considerable change, varying from locality to locality; the German unaccented final *e* has, as in other dialects of German, disappeared; in declensional forms, the genitive has almost entirely disappeared, while in the Lithuanian group the dative has also coincided with the accusative; in the verb, Judeo-German has lost almost entirely the imperfect tense; the order of words is more like the English than the German. These are all developments for which parallels can be adduced from the region of Frankfurt. Judeo-German is, consequently, not an anomaly, but a natural development."

Now, while we believe that few philologists will agree with Mr. Wiener in considering Judeo-German as a "natural development" in the sense in which the numerous South and North German dialects are so considered, and while the admixture of wholly foreign (Hebrew and Slavic) words points to Pennsylvania Dutch as perhaps the closest analogue of Yiddish, Mr. Wiener might have cited from purely German sources instances of license in grammatical, orthographical, and syntactical construction curiously corresponding to those considered characteristic of Judeo-German. The disinclination of Viennese, Styrians, Bavarians, and other South Germans to use the genitive is well known (the colloquial "dem Vater sein Kind" being preferred to "das Kind des Vaters"); and the vagaries of German pronunciation and orthography find expression in numberless old rhymes and inscriptions, in such "Yiddish" spellings as *kümt* (for "kommt"), *krenck* (for "krank"), *frimmer* (for "frommer"), etc. *Wann* or *wan*, and *als* or *alss* (instead of "wenn"), are likewise frequent instances of a "Yiddish" turn in the German of the days of Hans Sachs, as in writers of the last century. As for the indiscriminate use of the dative and accusative, we find in a little volume of 'Deutsche Reime' before us examples like the following:

"*Den* lieben Printzen woll Er geben" (A. D. 1649).

"Wer Gott fürchet und helt sein gebot,
Den wirst wohl gehen hier and tort" (1677).

"Ach Gott hilf *mich* erwerben" (1684).

"Ist sie in der hell, das hilfft *sie* nicht" (about 1700).

Constructions like "So baldt ich das schwert auf duhe heben," "Bin ich beyg'standen dreyssig Jahr" (about 1720) are frequent parallels to the Yiddish inversion of the normal order of verb and object.

As for the subject-matter of modern Yiddish literature: satire, allegory, and fable have always had a peculiar fascination for the Jewish mind, and they have doubtless proved a safe and effective vehicle of dissatisfaction with existing conditions in countries where plainness of speech would have been dangerous. Naturally, much has been borrowed from German literature, Schiller and Lessing being especially popular, while even writers on science, like Bernstein and Brehm, are represented by creditable adaptations. Russian writers are very freely drawn upon, and Jewish cosmopolitanism is attested by numerous translations from such authors as Scott, Thomas Hood, Jules Verne, Victor Hugo, Longfellow, and Harriet Beecher Stowe. Mr. Wiener assigns a very high rank to several recent Yiddish writers, particularly to Spektor, Rabinowitsch, Dienesohn, and Perez. Of Perez he says: "With him Judeo-German letters enter into competition with what there is best in the world's literature, where he will some day occupy an honorable place," and one is disposed to agree with Mr. Wiener after reading the powerful sketch,

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"Bontsie Silent," in the highly interesting chrestomathy which forms part of the book. The profound pathos and delicate humor of this description of a departed soul unconscious of its worth, and about to be rewarded for its sufferings on earth, remind one of Andersen at his best. Not a few talented Judeo-German writers have been driven from Russia to these shores, preëminent among them M. Rosenfeld, whose 'Songs from the Ghetto' Mr. Wiener had already previously introduced to the American public. It may be that Mr. Rosenfeld, who we believe is applying himself to the study of English, will justify the unstinted praise which Mr. Wiener bestows upon his literary ability. On the whole, however, in this country a Judeo-German literature, in all its various manifestations as journalism, the Bowery "drama," and crude socialistic agitation, is an anachronism, and Mr. Wiener considers it so. In fact, he hopes—speaking of Mr. Rosenfeld's verses—that "in another twenty-five years the language in which he has uttered his despair will be understood in America but by few, used for literary purposes probably by none." In Europe, Yiddish seems destined to survive as the only language of the downtrodden and ignorant of the Hebrew race. Some of the productions of this literature will always appeal to the admirers of literary genius, whatever its garb, and to the lover of his kind, regardless of creed. For this reason Mr. Wiener's book has an interest quite apart from its scholarly value, which is considerable. He has dealt successfully with the maze of Russian, Hebrew, Polish, and Yiddish spellings, and, with one or two exceptions, has been consistent in his transliterations.

Francis Turner Palgrave: His Journals and Memories of his Life. By Gwenllian F. Palgrave. Longmans.

The noble and beautiful face which furnishes a frontispiece to this attractive volume excites that double emotion inspired by so many memoirs of highly educated Englishmen, and sometimes even by their portraits. There is a sadness often suggested by their combination of high motive, superb outfit, and inadequate result. In the present case, the reader can discover little happiness in the intellectual career of one who sincerely holds that "art (despite a few reactions) has had one long downward career for 2,000 years" (p. 181), and who is always oppressed with contemplation of "the cursed Reformation" (p. 203). One feels that Palgrave's brother, William, who was twice converted to the Catholic Church, who spent his life as a world-wanderer, and who wrote the interminable and unreadable Dantesque poem, 'A Vision of Life,' must have been really the happier of the two. Sir Francis Palgrave tried hard to retain his comprehensiveness of taste and even his friendship with Mr. Gladstone, but his heart was with Cardinal Newman. His literary judgments were so extreme as to be almost whimsical. Thus, he found Tennyson to be "ten times the wider and deeper thinker as compared with Browning" (p. 103), and placed Scott's 'Bride of Lammermoor' above all other novels, "like a play of Shakspere above all other plays." "Indeed," he adds, "in astonishing truthfulness and variety in creation of character, in power and pathos, I cannot see how this, at least, is inferior to Shakspere" (p. 134). This element of whim was felt at first, it may be remembered, in his "Golden Treasury," and especially in the second series, which gave such extreme prominence to the poetry of O'Shaughnessy and of Barnes. He writes, curiously enough, while preparing this, to Mr. W. M. Rossetti, "Can you give me Swinburne's address? I want, of course, some of his work." When it is considered that he had already been occupied three or four years on this second volume, and had "gone over everything several times in the hope of doing justice to all" (p. 259), it does not seem at all strange that he should also have written, the year following, "I have been unable to persuade Swinburne to let me have any specimen of his work" (p. 260). It was certainly testing severely the presumed humility of Mr. Swinburne when he was invited to send in his magnificent 'Song in Time of Order,' for instance, at the last moment, to fill a casual gap in a collection made up after an editor's four years' careful study of Barnes and O'Shaughnessy.

Sir Francis Palgrave's own poems, as published here, give a slight sense of mediocrity, but there are many interesting letters from eminent men, and many pleasant suggestions. Gladstone, Tennyson, Browning, Lecky, Ruskin, W. M. Rossetti, Newman, Temple, Matthew Arnold, and Lady Eastlake were among his correspondents. The one controlling and invariable charm of the book is in his relations to his own family. As a husband and father it is impossible to imagine any one more admirable and delightful than Palgrave; but it is pathetic to notice, on the very last page of the book, that he nevertheless, in his old age, "hated speculations on the after-life," and "particularly disliked the complete assurance of freedom from pain and sorrow after death which is expressed in so many religious poems."

A Prisoner of France: The Memoirs, Diary and Correspondence of Charles Boothby, Captain Royal Engineers, during his last Campaign. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 12mo, pp. 282.

Captain Boothby was severely wounded in the leg at the battle of Talavera, in Spain, July 27, 1809. He had to suffer amputation, and, being unable to endure the rough transportation, was left behind when, a few days later, Wellington marched back towards Portugal to meet Soult. He thus fell into the hands of the French. He remained a prisoner of war in Talavera till the middle of October, when he was sent to Madrid. In the former place he was allowed to remain in a Spanish family on parole; but on reaching the capital he was put in a French military hospital and closely imprisoned. At the beginning of January, 1810, he was allowed to travel to the French boundary, on parole, but accompanying bodies of troops and being under control of the commandants. Crossing the border after twenty-five days of rough experience, he got fuller benefit of his parole, and journeyed to Paris as a private traveller. In midsummer he was exchanged and went home. The loss of his leg prevented his resuming service in his corps, and he retired from the army. He afterwards took orders and was Rector of Sutterton in Lincolnshire till he died in 1846.

He had unusual opportunities to learn the true spirit of the Spanish patriots in their great struggle with France, and to contrast their affectionate devotion to a wounded friend with the merciless guerilla warfare against the French. His observations of the French soldiery were keen, and he draws the differences of classes among them with instructive clearness. Among the officers, he was fortunate in finding friends who were chivalric in their attention to him, though he also met some of the type of vulgar fire-eaters who were cruel in war and coarse tyrants over those in their power. The whole story becomes, unintentionally, a tribute to the noble and cultivated humanity of that stout soldier Marshal Mortier, Duc de Trévise, into whose hands Boothby fell. From others he received passing attentions that were kind and graceful, but Mortier, having once interested himself in him, followed him up with his good offices, and thought no pains too great to take to soften the rigors of captivity to the young Englishman, or to help on his exchange when hundreds of miles away.

The quaint style of the narrative and of the letters is well supplemented by little sketches from Captain Boothby's pencil, and the book is a welcome addition to the original sources of history in a great epoch: the more so because English memoirs of the kind have been comparatively few.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anna Ruina. London: David Nutt.
Baumgartner, Andreas. William Wordsworth, nach seiner Gemeinverständlichen Seite Dargestellt. Zürich: Orell Füssli.
Bernhardt, W. Stille Wasser. Erzählungen. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Christian, Rev. J. T. Baptist History Vindicated. Louisville: Baptist Book Concern. $1.
Cumulative Index to Periodicals. 1898. Cleveland: Helman-Taylor Co.
Dennis, Rev. J. S. Christian Missions and Social Progress. Vol. II. F. H. Revell Co. $2.50.
Douglas, Rev. G. W. Sermon at the Ordination of Charles A. Briggs. Macmillan. 25c.
Foster, Lillian. Geschichten und Märchen für Anfänger. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 40c.
Going, Maud. Field, Forest and Wayside Flowers. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.50.
Hale, R. W. The Dreyfus Story. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 50c.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. IX. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Jones, Dr. S. A. The Porcelain Painter's Son. A Fantasy. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. $1.
Love, R. J. Tom Huston's Transformation. F. T. Neely.
Lützow, Francis, Count. A History of Bohemian Literature. Appletons. $1.50.
Markham, Edwin. The Man with the Hoe, and Other Poems. Doubleday & McClure Co.
Massonneau, Fernand. Cœurs Blessés. Pièce en Trois Actes. Meyer Frères & Cie.
Nash, Prof. H. S. Ethics and Revelation. Macmillan. $1.50.
Plummer, Mary W. Contemporary Spain, as Shown by her Novelists. Truslove, Hanson & Comba.
Randall, J. W. Poems of Nature and Life. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
Republic or Empire? The Philippine Question. Chicago: Independence Co.
Rhoades, Prof. L. A. Freytag's Aus dem Jahrhundert des grossen Krieges. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Schwartz, Julia A. Vassar Studies. Putnams. $1.25.
Shakspere, W. Othello. Cassell. 10c.
Smith, R. D. Fate of the Black Eagle, and Other Stories. F. T. Neely.
Spofford, Harriet P. The Maid he Married. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. 75c.
Stephens, R. N. A Gentleman Player. His Adventures on a Secret Mission for Queen Elizabeth. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Sterndale, R. A. The Afghan Knife. New ed. Brentanos. $1.25.
Tille, Alexander. Yule and Christmas: Their Place in the Germanic Year. London: David Nutt.
Verner, Lieut.-Col. Willoughby. A British Rifle-Man. The Journals of Major George Simmons during the Peninsular War and Waterloo. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Walter, Dr. Robert. Vital Science. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Waterloo, Stanley. The Wolf's Long Howl. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Welch, L. S., and Camp, Walter. Yale. Her Campus, Class-Rooms, and Athletics. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $2.50.
Wells, Prof. Webster. The Essentials of Geometry. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.25.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Racine's Andromaque. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Whistler, J. McN. The Baronet and the Butterfly. R. H. Russell.
Wilson, E. Dante Interpreted. Putnams. 50c.
Wise, B. H. The Life of Henry A. Wise of Virginia. Macmillan. $3.
Woods, J. H. The Value of Religious Facts. E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.
Wright, Carroll D. Outline of Practical Sociology. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Yeats, W. B. The Wind among the Reeds. John Lane.
Young, Lucien, U. S. N. The Real Hawaii. Doubleday & McClure Co.

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